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ABSTRACT

This report identifies approaches to providing for children with special educational needs in Japan. The report covers the following topics: the historical background of Japan's special educational system, compulsory education, centralization and teacher autonomy, number of children served in regular and special schools, classroom management, dropout rate, curriculum and instruction, parent-financed institutions, services for children with reading difficulties, transition of upper secondary school students and employment, disabled individuals in the community, social status of teachers and teacher education, teacher salaries, financing special education, educational computing in schools, and issues for the future and recommendations. Twenty-six figures present data on number of children served in special schools and classes, costs of academic and nonacademic instruction, students employed after schooling, education cost per student, enrollment by school level and by sex, and other factors. Appendices describe special education institutions in Japan, the link between education and health, and the state of research and studies on special education. (Contains 35 references.) (JDD)

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Asia Regional Study of Children with Special Educational Needs
Japan Case Study

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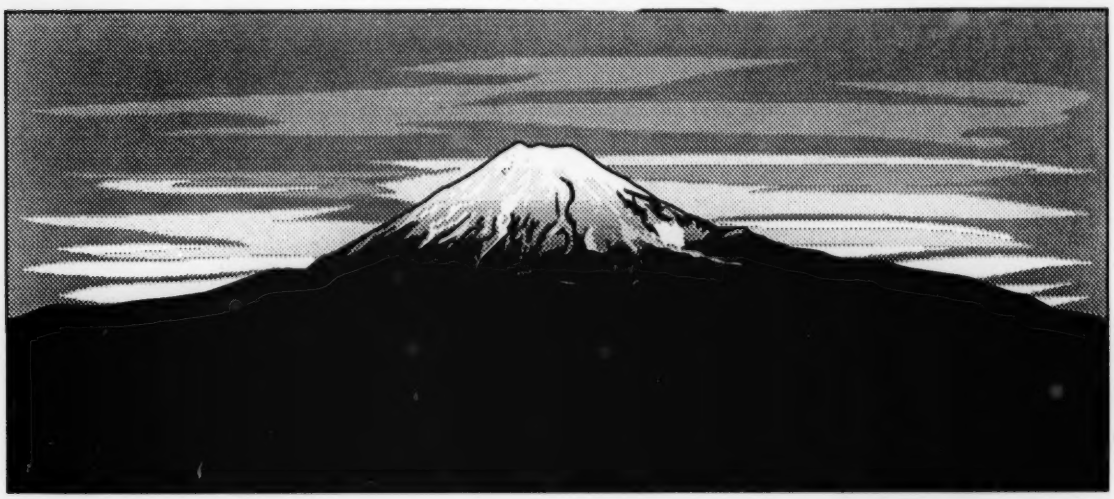

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June, 1993

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This paper has been submitted to The World Bank in Washington D.C., as a part of "Country Case Study" which focuses on Asia regional study of children with special educational needs.

Table of Contents

1. Introduction

    1.1 Purpose 1
    1.2 Japan in General 1

2. Historical Background 12

    2.2 Pre-War Period 12
    2.3 Post-War Period 13

3. Compulsory Education 14

4. Centralization and Teacher's Autonomy 15

5. Children Served 16

6. Classroom Management 21

7. "The Fallen Behind" 23

    7.2 Drop-out 23
    7.3 School Bullying 25

8. Curriculum and Instruction 25

9. Parent's Motivation in Education and Parent-Financed Institution 26

    9.1 Parent's Motivation in Education 26
    9.2 Parent-Financed Institution 26

10. Hard to Read Children and New Educational Service 30

    10.2 "Tsukyu": Resource Room Service 31

11. Upper Secondary Schooling, Transition and Employment 31

    11.1 Upper Secondary Schooling 31
    11.2 Transition and Employment 32

12. The Disabled in Community 34

13. Social Status of Teachers and Teacher Education 35

    13.1 Social Status of Teachers 36
    13.2 Teacher Education 36
    13.3 Initial Training 37
    13.4 Inservice Training 40
    13.5 Voluntary Professional Growth 41
    13.6 Licensed Teacher 41

14. Teacher Salaries 41

15. Financing Special Education 43

15.1 Public Educational Expenditure Governments 43
15.2 National and Local 43
15.3 Education Cost 44

16. Educational Computing in Schools 44

16.1 Computers in Schools 44
16.2 Teacher Training and Computers 46

17. Issues for the Future and Recommendations 47

17.1 Issues for the Future 47
17.2 Recommendations 48

Appendix 50

I. Special Education Institutions in Japan 50
II. Link between Education and Health 53
III. Current State of Research and Studies on Special Education 54
IV. Additional Tables 57

Bibliography 64

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.2.4.1	Real Gross National Product
Figure 1.2.4.2	Ratio of Wholly Unemployed
Figure 1.2.5	Consumer Price Index
Figure 1.2.7.2	Population Projection for Japan 1985-2050
Figure 1.2.7.3	Ratio of Population Distribution
Figure 1.2.8.1	Newborn and Infant Mortality
Figure 1.2.8.2	Number of Births and Children
Figure 1.2.9	Intake of Energy Source per Day
Figure 5.1.1.1	Trends in the Number of Students
Figure 5.1.1.2	Number of Children Served in Special Schools and Classes
Figure 5.1.1.3	Number of Special Schools
Figure 5.1.1.4	Trend in Number of Special Schools
Figure 5.1.6	Number of Children Exempted/Postponed from Schooling
Figure 7.2.1	School Dropout
Figure 9.2.3.1	Costs of Academic and Non-Academic Instruction
Figure 9.2.4	Children Taking Academic and Non-Academic Lessons
Figure 11.2.2	Students Employed After Schooling
Figure 13.6.2	Licensed Special Education Teachers
Figure 13.3.2	Employed Teachers with Teaching License
Figure 15.3.2	Education Cost Per Student

Additional Tables:

Figure A-1	Enrollment by Establisher Year of 1989
Figure A-2	Enrollment in Special Education for Primary & Secondary Age Children
Figure A-3	Enrollment Rate by School Level Year of 1988
Figure A-4	Enrollment of Students by Sex Year of 1988
Figure A-5	Expenditures in Special Education
Figure A-6	Unit Cost Year of 1986

1. Introduction

1.1 Purpose

1.1.1 The purpose of this report is to identify appropriate directions of changes in the goals and objectives, and approaches to proving for children with special educational needs in Japan. This case study is commission by the Asia Technical Department of the World Bank.

1.2 Japan in General

1.2.1 All aspects of human endeavor such as social, cultural, economic and political factors invariably have a tremendous impact on well-being and welfare of Japanese children and parents. The major economic, socio-political and cultural changes are interwoven and complex. However, the most distinctive recent driving force for change in Japan has been universal education and economy. Japanese education has produced multiple benefits for the nation as well as for its individual students. These benefits include a well-educated citizenry which strengthens national democracy; an adaptable work force capable of high productivity in a competitive world economy; the opportunity for individual social and economic mobility; and an improved general quality of life [1].

1.2.2 By the 1960s, postwar recovery and accelerating economic growth brought increased demands on the education system. Business leaders and government policymakers viewed the content and quality of public education as central to economic development and national cohesion.

1.2.3 The enrollment rate for compulsory education has been almost 100% since 1948 [2]. The advancement rate to upper secondary school level was 42.5% in 1950, and became 90% in 1974 and 95.9% (male 94.8% and female 96.9%) in 1992. The advancement to universities and junior colleges was 30% in 1973 and became 37% in 1990 and 32.7% (male 25.2% and female 40.2%) in 1992 [3].

1/ US Department of Education (1987). Japanese Education Today, Washington D.C.: US Department of Education. p. vii.

2/ National Institute for Educational Research of Japan (1991). Towards Formulating Goals, Aims and Objectives of Secondary Education for the Twenty-First Century. Final Report of a Regional Seminar. Tokyo: National Institute for Educational Research of Japan. p. 16.

3/ Research and Statistic Planning Division (1993). Report on School Basic Survey. p. 21.

1.2.4 The rapid growth of postwar economy was also accelerated by advancement of science and technology, incorporating an increasing demand for persons possessing individual interests, intellectual ability, high morale, disciplined study and work habits, and leadership in research and development. The economy achieved an average GNP annual growth rate of 4.3% from 1982 to 1991 [4]. In 1990 the GDP was $23,801 per capita [5]. The ratio of wholly unemployed population is approximately 2.5% 1982 through 1992 [6].

1.2.5 However, the other side of this economy has been showing an constant increase of the consumer price index since 1991 [7].

1.2.6 Universal education and economic growth have brought maturation of society. One of indicators of Japan's maturing society is rapid aging of the Japanese population. The average life expectancy in Japan stood at 50 for men and women in 1947. However, by 1988 reached 75.5 for men and 81.3 for women, resulting in the appellation of "the age of over-eighty life span" and making Japan one of the nations with the longest life expectancy for men and women in the world [8].

1.2.7 Total population of Japan numbers 123,587,297 persons in 1992 . Among it, the number of children with 0 through 17 in age counts 28,501,584 (23.1%). According to the estimate of future population produced by the Institute of Population of the Ministry of Health and Welfare, the population is expected to reach 131 million by the year 2,000 and to peak at 135 million by 2015 [9].

1.2.8 Universal education and economic growth proceeded in harmony with good nutrition and advanced medical practices. The new born mortality rate per 1,000 birth, for instance, was 2.4 and the infant mortality rate per 1,000 children under 1

4/ Research and Statistic Department (1992). Economic Statistics Annual 1992. Bank of Japan: Tokyo . p. 32

5/ Research and Statistic Department (1992). Economic Statistics Annual 1992. Bank of Japan: Tokyo . p. 18.

6/ Ibid., p. 20.

7/ Research and Statistic Planning Division (1993). Report on School Basic Survey. p. 19.

8/ National Institute for Educational Research of Japan (1991). Health Education in Japan. p. 2.

9/ Institute of Population Problems (1991). Population Projection for Japan 1985-2085. Tokyo: Ministry of Health and Welfare.

Table1.2.4.1: Real Gross National Product (At 1985 Prices)
(Compared to previous year)

Year	Increase
1982	3.5
1983	3
1984	4.5
1985	4.8
1986	2.9
1987	4.9
1988	6
1989	4.5
1990	5.1
1991	3.4

Research and Statistics Department (1992). Economic Statistics Annual 1992, Tokyo: Bank of Japan. p.18.

Figure1.2.4.1: Real Gross National Product (At 1985 Prices)

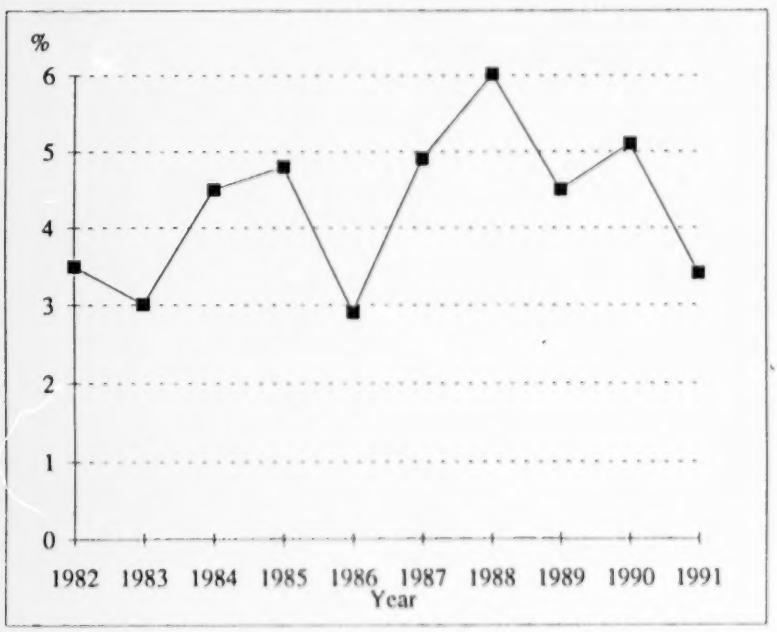


Table 1.2.4.2: Ratio of Wholly Unemployed

Year	Unemployed
1982	2.4
1983	2.6
1984	2.7
1985	2.6
1986	2.8
1987	2.8
1988	2.5
1989	2.3
1990	2.1
1991	2.1
1992	2.2

Research and Statistic Department (1992). Economic Statistics Annual 1992. Bank of Japan: Tokyo. p. 20.

Figure 1.2.4.2: Ratio of Wholly Unemployed

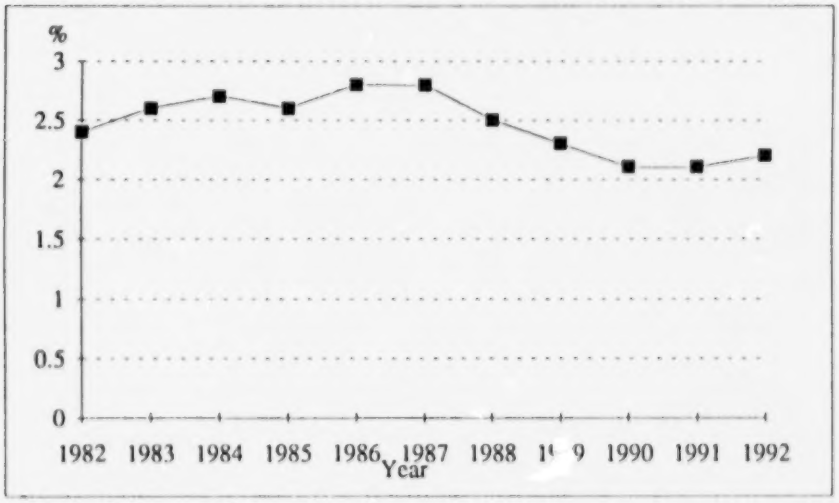


Table 1.2.5: Consumer Price Index (1990 average=100)

Year	Index
1981	85.6
1982	88
1983	89.6
1984	91.7
1985	93.5
1986	94.1
1987	94.2
1988	94.9
1989	97
1990	100
1991	103.3
1992	105

Research and Statistics Department (1992). Economic Statistics Annual 1992, Tokyo: Bank of Japan. p.18.

FIgure 1.2.5: Consumer Price Index (1990 average=100)

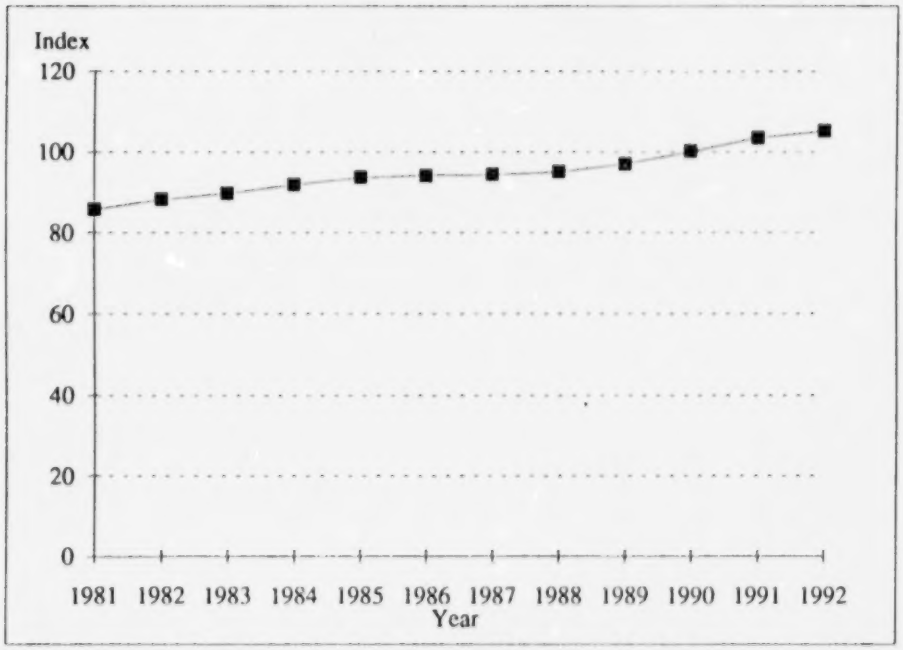


Table 1.2.7.1: Population Projection for Japan 1985-2050

Year	Total Population	0--19 Year Old
1950	83,200	36,996
1955	89,275	38,425
1960	93,419	37,376
1965	98,275	36,017
1970	103,720	33,643
1975	111,940	34,927
1980	117,060	35,540
1985	121,049	35,025
1986	121,672	34,979
1987	122,264	34,527
1988	122,783	34,094
1989	122,955	33,634
1990	123,041	33,168
1991	123,156	32,673
1992	123,587	32,163
1993	125,263	31,648
1994	126,864	31,207
1995	127,565	30,912
1996	128,281	30,741
1997	129,008	30,695
1998	129,741	30,724
1999	130,473	30,847
2000	131,192	30,024
2005	134,247	32,297
2010	135,823	33,082
2015	135,938	32,512
2020	135,304	31,034
2025	134,642	29,996
2030	134,067	30,222
2035	133,133	31,074
2040	131,646	31,466
2045	130,017	30,955
2050	128,681	30,032

(in Thousand)

Institute of Population Problems (1991). Population Projection for Japan 1985-2085. Tokyo: Ministry of Health and Welfare. p. 65.

Figure 1.2.7.2: Population Projection for Japan 1985-2050

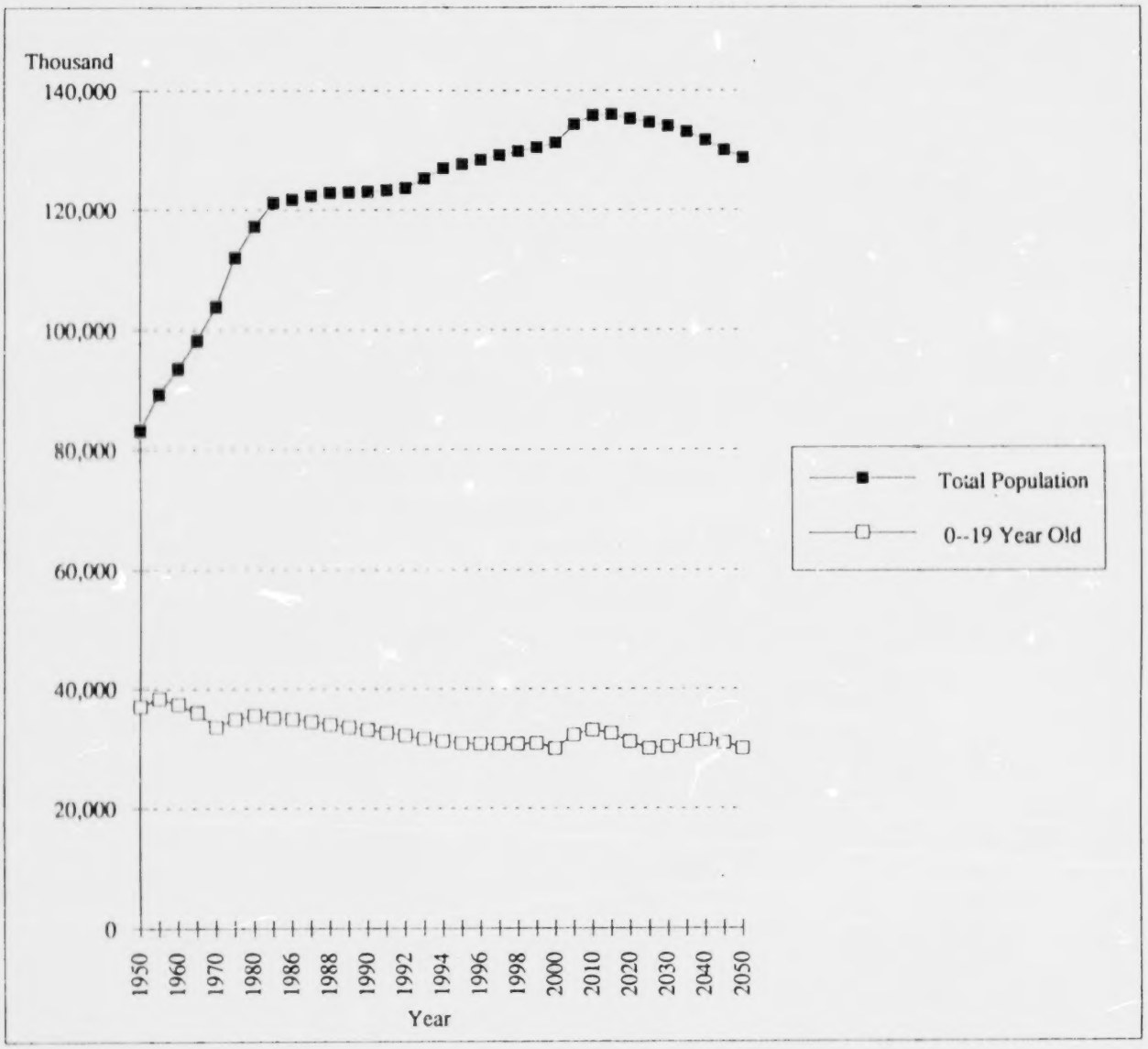


Table 1.2.7.3: Ratio of Population Distribution

Year	1950	1960	1980	1985	1990	1992	1993
0-14 Year Old	35.4	24	23.5	21.5	18.2	17.4	16.9
15-64 Year Old	59.6	68.9	67.4	68.2	69.7	69.7	69.7
Over 65 Year Ol	4.9	7.1	9.1	10.3	12.1	12.9	13.4

Nikkei Shinbun, April 15,1993.

Figure 1.2.7.3: Ratio of Population Distribution

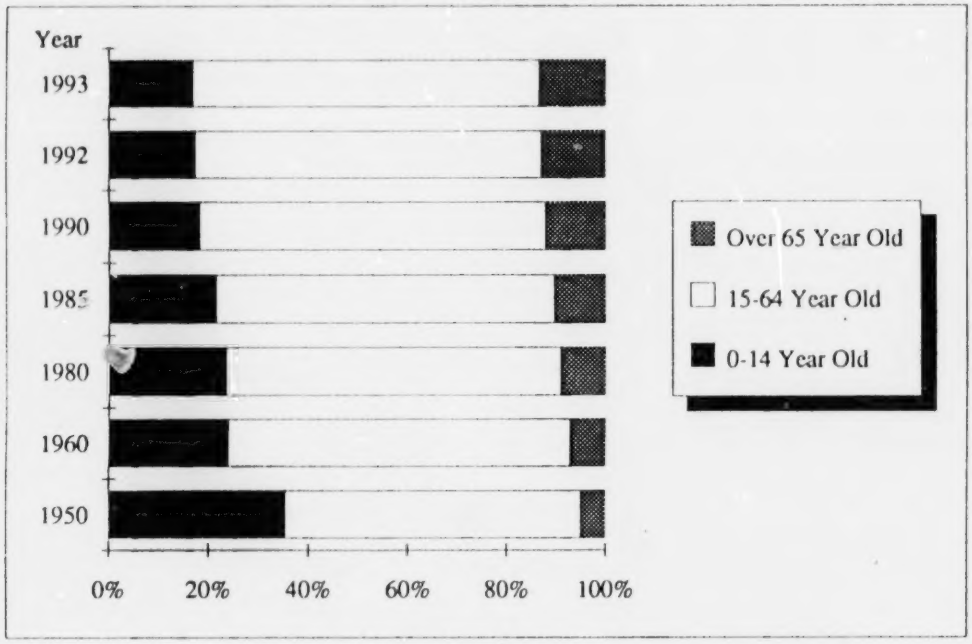


Table 1.2.8.1: Newborn and Infant Mortality

Year	New Born	Infant
1981	4.7	7.1
1982	4.2	6.6
1983	3.9	6.2
1984	3.7	6
1985	3.4	5.5
1986	3.1	5.2
1987	2.9	5
1988	2.7	4.8
1989	2.6	4.6
1990	2.6	4.6
1991	2.4	4.4

Statistics and Information Department (1990). Vital Statistics 1991. Tokyo: Ministry of Health and Welfare. (in Japanese)

Figure 1.2.8.1: Newborn and Infant Mortality

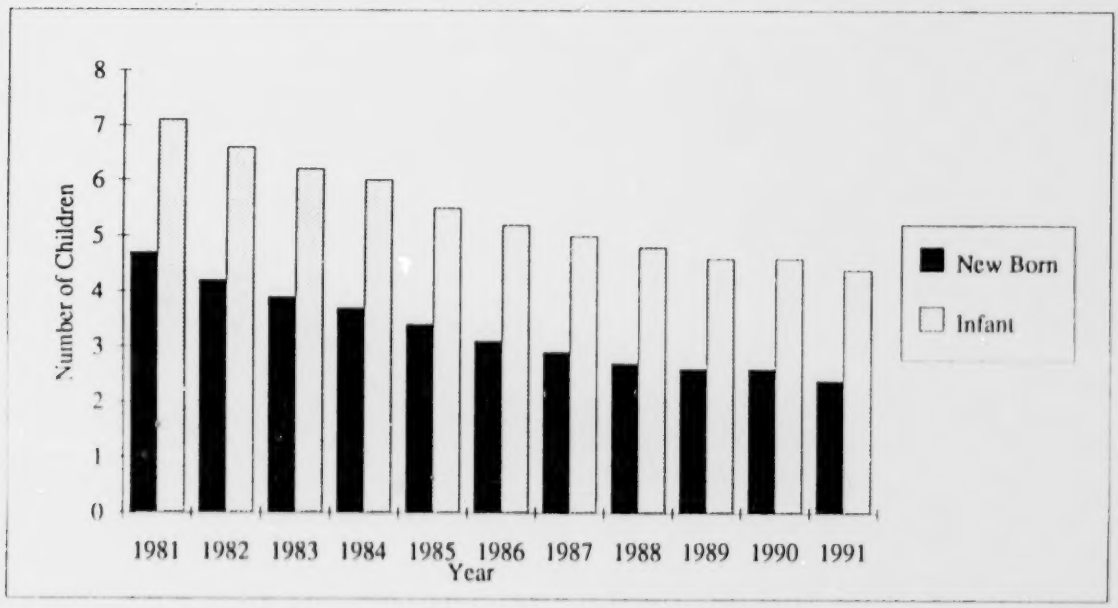


Table 1.2.8.2: Number of Births and Children

Year	Number of Births	Per Family
1981	1,529	1.74
1982	1,515	1.77
1983	1,509	1.8
1984	1,490	1.81
1985	1,432	1.76
1986	1,383	1.72
1987	1,347	1.69
1988	1,314	1.66
1988	1,247	1.57
1990	1,222	1.54

(in Thousand)

Sakamoto, K. (1992). The Movement of Population and Children.
In M. Hirayama (Ed.), Japanese Children's Almanac. p.48.

Figure 1.2.8.2: Number of Births and Children

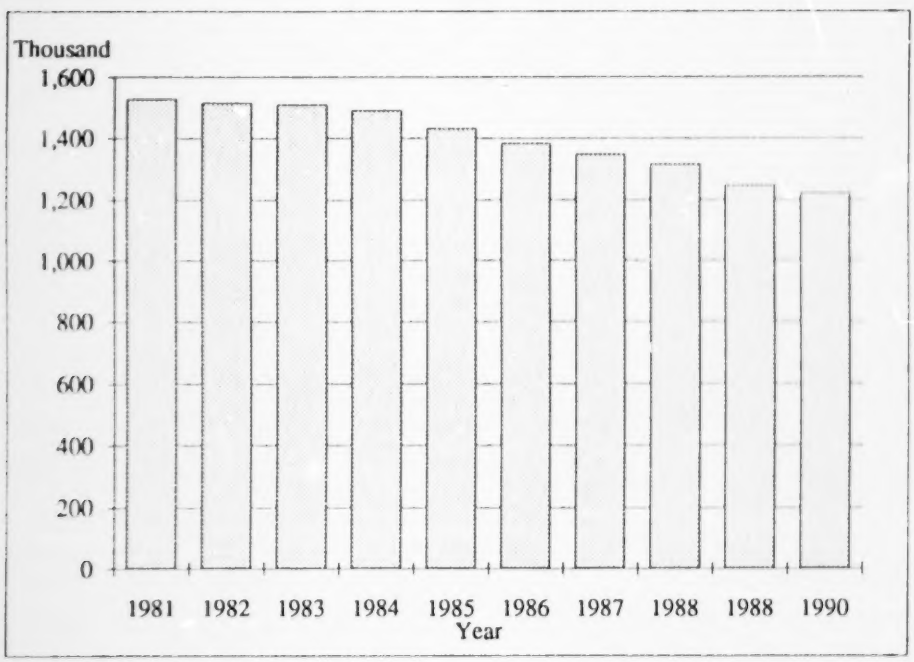
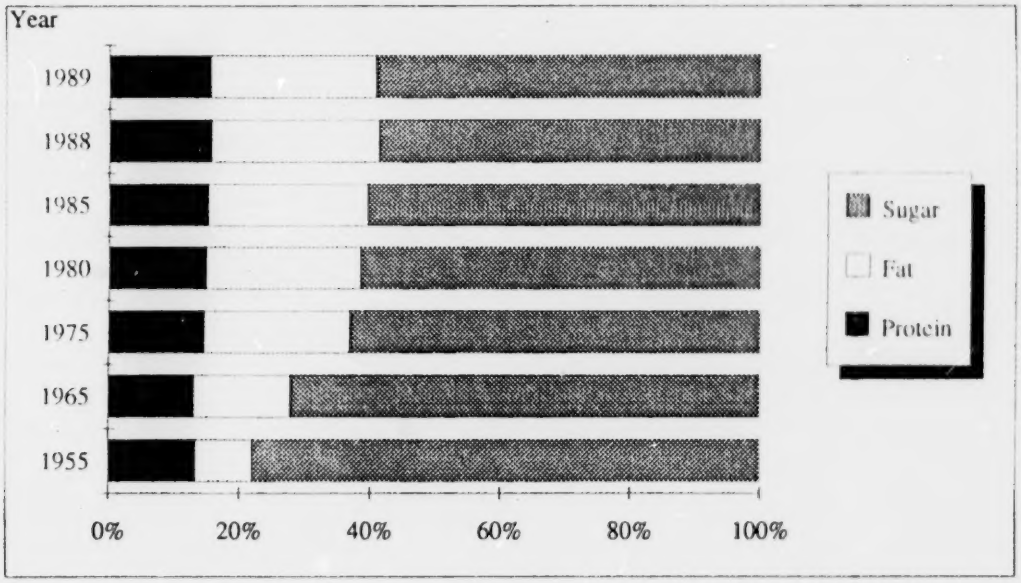


Table 1.2.9: Intake of Energy Source per Day

Year	Protein	Fat	Sugar
1955	13.3	8.7	78
1965	13.1	14.8	72.1
1975	14.6	22.3	63.1
1980	14.9	23.6	61.5
1985	15.1	24.5	60.4
1988	15.6	25.7	58.7
1989	15.5	25.3	59.2

Mizuno, K. (1992). Nutrition and Diet. In M. Hirayama (Ed.), Japanese Children's Almanac. p. 243.

Figure 1.2.9: Intake of Energy Source per Day



year-old 4.4 in 1991 [10].

1.2.9 Health education in municipal and local health centers and schools focuses on methods of daily living and dietary habits aimed at encouraging life styles which have a proper balance of physical activity, nutritional intake and rest and relaxation [11].

2. Historical Background

2.1.1 As in most countries, special education in Japan is best understood in its historical and cultural context. Abiding cultural values strongly affect much of contemporary Japanese special education. The nation's long historical and cultural background is not always widely known in Western Europe and North America [12].

2.1.2 Chinese civilization was particularly influential in the formation of Japan's education and culture. Chinese philosophical and literary ideas have remained strong throughout Japanese history. The Confucian heritage emphasized respectful and benevolent hierarchical relationships, harmonious social relations, and morality. In fact, Chinese ideas and systems were modified to suit Japanese circumstances and ideas. They were interwoven with Japanese philosophical and literary traditions.

2.2 Pre-War Period

2.2.1 Prior to the Meiji period (1868-1912), education was a matter of private business which was practiced in a small and sporadic scale in the entire nation. However, in the Meiji period (1868-1912), nation's new leaders realized from the nature of Western society that education had a major role to play in nation building and modernization. The Meiji government initiated a public education system that would help Japan catch up to the West. The year of 1872 turned out to be the year of the new modern education system in Japan; the Government Order of Education, entitled "Gakusei", was in effect. Compulsory general education was launched in 1886 for four years of primary education. The duration of primary schooling extended to six years in 1907.

10/ Statistics and Information Department (1992). Vital Statistic 1991. Tokyo: Ministry of Health and Welfare.

11/ Sakamoto, K. (1992). The Movement of Population and Children. In M. Hirayama (Ed.), Japanese Children's Almanac. pp.25-78.

12/ US Department of Education (1987). Japanese Education Today. Washington D.C. : US Government Printing Office. p. 1.

2.2.2 On the other hand, special education in the official form school education began in 1878 when the Kyoto School for the Blind and the Deaf established. In 1879 the Rakuzenkai School for the Blind started in Tokyo. Philanthropic ideas and a movement led by dedicated concerned people greatly contributed to the establishment of these schools. The number of private schools for the blind and deaf gradually increased, totaling 38 in 1907. In the meantime, a schooling in the form of special class for mentally retarded children for the first time began to take place in the Nagano Prefecture in 1889. The Takinogawa Gakuen School, a private school for the mentally retarded, was established in Tokyo in 1890. With an enactment of the School for the Deaf-Mute and for the Blind Ordinance in 1923, prefectural governments were mandated to establish schools for deaf and blind children [13].

2.3 Post-War Period

2.3.1 After the war, the government was placed under the control of the Supreme Commander of the Allied Forces, and nationwide efforts began to reconstruct the country. A wave of foreign ideas, mainly American, was introduced and adopted through the educational mission committee of the Allied Forces.

2.3.2 The Allied Forces in 1946 requested the US Department of Army to send a delegation of education experts to Japan in order to establish a democratic system. The Educational Mission headed by George D. Stoddard, Secretary of Education of New York State, conducted on-site visits investigated the actual situation of education in Japan. The report made by the Mission was entitled "Report of the US Education Mission to Japan", addressed the principle of reform on Japan's education and was fully acknowledged by the Allied Forces [14].

2.3.3 The Mission's report regarding special education stated that "attention should be given, at the appropriate levels, to physically handicapped and mentally retarded children. Separate classes or schools should be provided for the blind and deaf and for other seriously handicapped children whose needs can not be met adequately in the regular schools. Attendance should be governed by the regular compulsory attendance law." The statement of this report formed an important basis for the later enactments of provisions of the segregated system of special education.

2.3.4 The foreign ideas incorporated the following: the establishment of a 9-year compulsory education system; the restoration of local school boards; revision of the curriculum and textbooks, including the abolition of "ethical code" education; the

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13/ Tsujimura, Y. (1980). Establishment of the Postwar Special Education System in Japan. Yokosuka: National Institute of Special Education. p. 1.

14/ Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1980). Japan's Modern Educational System: A History of the First Hundred Years. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. p. 234.

establishment of coeducation; introduction of university-based teacher education; and support for equal access of all children to higher education. The system of special education was reorganized under these circumstances which constituted a radical reform of Japanese education. Educational services to children with various categories of handicaps were resumed on a small scale.

3. Compulsory Education

3.1.1 In accordance with the principle of equal opportunity in education, the Fundamental Law of Education and the School Education enacting in 1947, set for a new education system which provided with nine years of compulsory schooling. The compulsory education system of schools for the blind and deaf was established in principle in 1948. The Special Measures Law for General Provision of Public Schools for the Handicapped (Law No. 152) , enacted in 1956, increased governmental subsidies to promote the establishment of schools for the handicapped. The enforcement of compulsory system for the mentally retarded, physically handicapped, health impaired and other handicapped children was delayed due to the following reasons: such types of special schools were new to Japan; and, the general public was forced to implement the 6-3 compulsory education system for regular elementary and lower secondary schools during the difficult period following the end of World War II. Therefore, the enforcement of compulsory schooling for this population was deferred for more than a quarter century.

3.1.2 On November 1973, a Government Order was issued to determine the enforcement date of that part of the School Education Law which provided for establishing schools for the handicapped. Under the provision of the Order, handicapped children who had been deprived of the right to receive compulsory education services were given opportunities to attend school and guaranteed a free public education. Finally, a compulsory system of 9 years of education in schools for the handicapped was firmly established in the academic year 1979.

3.1.3 The degree of handicaps of children eligible for special schools is defined in the Order for Enforcement of the School Education Law (Article 22-2). The detailed stipulations of the Article are given in the Notification of "Educational Placement of Pupils and Students Who Need Special Educational Treatment"(Notification of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, No. 309, 6th of October 1976) [15]. The Notification also denotes the degrees of handicaps of children eligible for special classes. Chart 1 shows educational placement of handicapped children provided under this Order and Notification. In general, education for severely handicapped children is provided in special schools, while education for mildly handicapped children is provided in special classes or ordinary classes with special consideration

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15/ Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1989). Education in Japan: A Graphic Presentation. Tokyo. p. 9. (in Japanese)

and arrangements.

3.1.4 A definition of special education depends on the category of handicap of a child, and not a child's individual educational needs. Thus, a "special educational needs (SEN)" concept does not exist officially in Japan. In addition, unlike in the United States, a learning disabilities (LD)" category is not taken up in the Japanese special education system. One of the questions of primary interest is how LD studies could be incorporated into university courses for special education. A survey is disclosing many somewhat passive opinions in support of a mere mention of the matter in related courses offered at universities (Misawa, 1989) [16]. Absence of generally agreed definition of LD implies the need of further studies.

4. Centralization and Teacher's Autonomy

4.1.1 There was an attempt to transform the centralized prewar system into a decentralized system based on an American model with elected local school boards. After the restoration of full national sovereignty in 1952, Japan immediately began to modify some of the education changes introduced by the military administration of the Allied Forces. These modifications reflected Japanese ideas about education and the function of a Japanese educational system. A "moral education course" was reinstituted in modified form, despite substantial initial concern that it would lead to a reintroduction of prewar nationalism in the schools. School boards reverted to being appointed, rather than elected, and the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (The Monbusho) regained a great deal of authority [17].

4.1.2 Nowadays, Japanese schools operate in a centralized, nationally controlled school system, and teachers throughout Japan must plan their instructional activities within the structure and guidelines prescribed by the Ministry of Education. However, the highly centralized Japanese education system actually requires more planning, curriculum development, instructional decision making, and professional choices at the local level and engenders more diversity at the classroom level than does the apparently less controlled system in other developed countries. Japanese teachers, in fact, have significant professional latitude that still meet the centrally defined instructional guidelines. In practice, Japanese teachers are actually less controlled in matters of instruction than most of the developed countries' counterparts.

16/ Misawa, G. (1990). Teacher Education to Enhance the Quality of Special Education. Report at JUSTEC. p. 7.

17/ Tsujimura, Y. (1980). Establishment of the Postwar Special Education System in Japan. Monograph, Yokosuka: National Institute of Special Education.

5. Children Served

5.1.1 For the 1992 school year, enrollment of handicapped and non-handicapped children in elementary and lower secondary schools--part of the 9-year compulsory schooling entitlement--was approximately 13.9 million [18]. From this total, 89,584 and 74,267 children and youth were served in special schools and special classes in the regular schools, respectively [19]. Of these, the number of children counted as part of the compulsory education population was 127,305, denoting approximately one percent of the students in that category. Figure 5.1.1.1. demonstrates long term trends of population in Japanese special education and children in the regular school who have individual educational needs. The maximum enrollment of the handicapped children to the special educational system in the compulsory education was 1.2% of all school aged children in 1973; however, enrollment declined gradually. In 1992 the enrollment dropped to .89% [20]. Special education is essentially segregation. Special education services are provided in special schools and special classes in regular elementary and lower secondary schools. There are three types of special schools: schools for the blind, schools for the deaf, and schools for the mentally retarded, physically handicapped, and health impaired [21].

5.1.2 An investigation conducted in 1967, the percentage of children needing special educational services in the school education system is presumed to be 3.7% (Ochiai, 1990) [22]. At present, again, approximately one percent of school age children with special educational needs(SEN) are served in the special education provision. Simple arithmetic results in that 2.7% of SEN students are left out sitting somewhere in regular schools without any appropriate services.

18/ Research and Statistic Planning Division (1993). Report on School Basic Survey. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. pp. 8-10. (in Japanese)

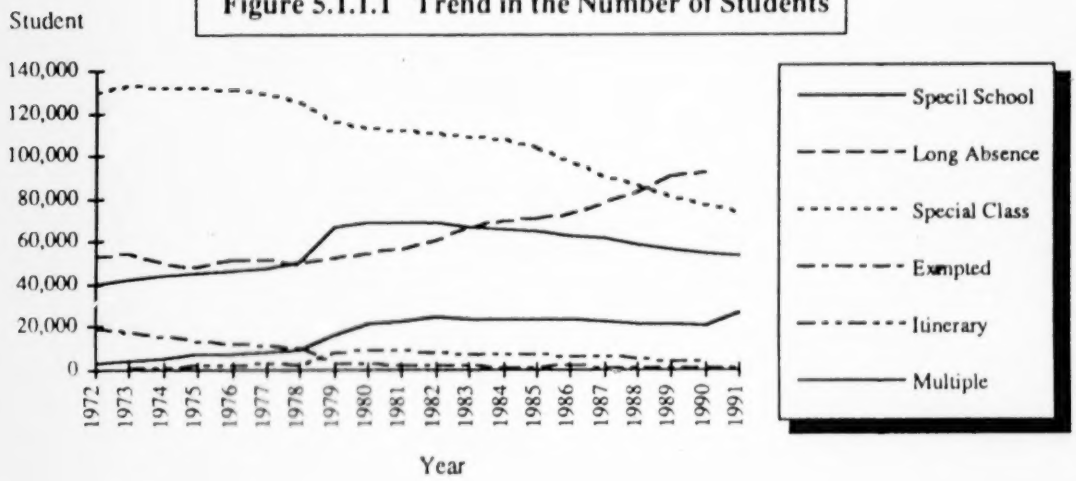
19/ Research and Statistic Planning Division (1993). Report on School Basic Survey. . Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. p. 13. (in Japanese)

20/ Research and Statistic Planning Division (1993). Report on School Basic Survey. . Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. p. 8. (in Japanese)

21/ Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1993). Special Education Statistics. Tokyo. p. 28. (in Japanese)

22/ Ochiai, T. (1990). "Issues and Trends of Japanese Special Education". In S. Narita & R. Scronce (Eds.), Proceedings of First Annual Phi Delta Kappa Research Conference on Global Education: Agenda for the 21st Century. Phi Delta Kappa, Tokyo. pp. 74-77.

Figure 5.1.1.1 Trend in the Number of Students



Ochiai, T. (199). Issues and Trends of Japanese Special Education. In S. Narita & R. Scronce (Eds.), Proceedings of First Annual Phi Delta Kappa Research Conference on Global Education: Agenda for the 21st Century. Phi Delta Kappa, Tokyo. p. 77.

Figure 5.1.1.2: Number of Children Served in Special Schools and Classes

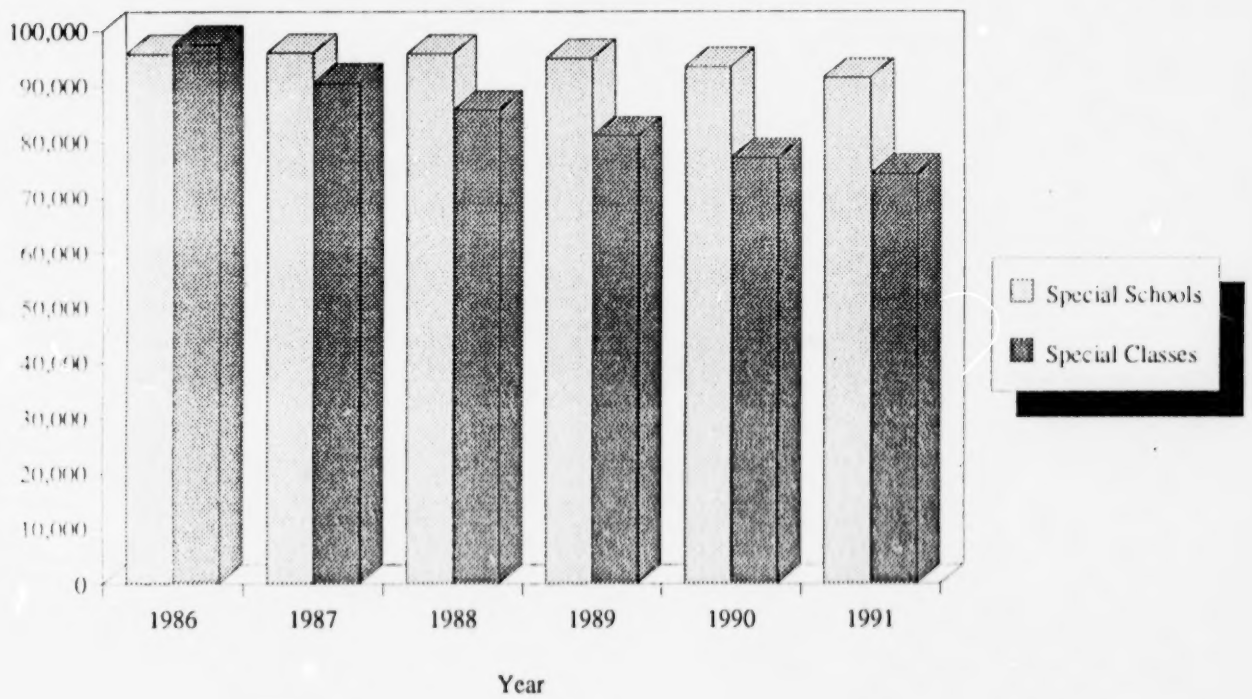


Table 5.1.1.3: Number of Special Schools

	Number
Blind	70
Deaf	107
MR	498
PH	191
HI	97

MR: Mentally Retarded
PH: Physically Handicapped
HI: Health Impaired

Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (1993). Special Education Statistics. Tokyo. p. 28.

Figure 5.1.1.3: Number of Special Schools

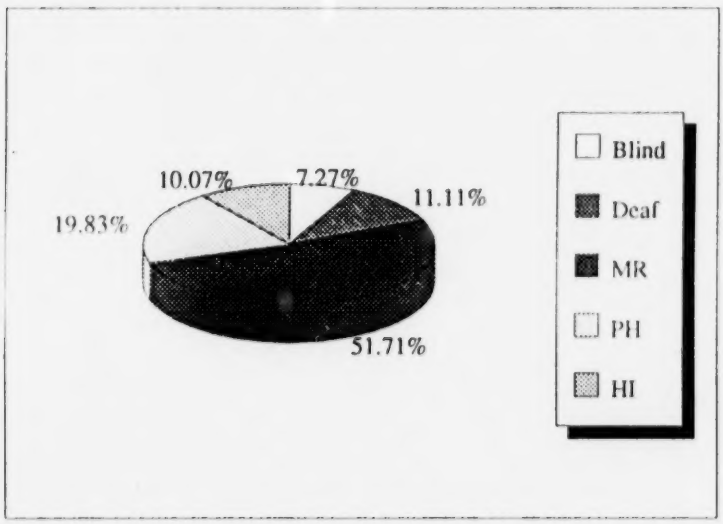


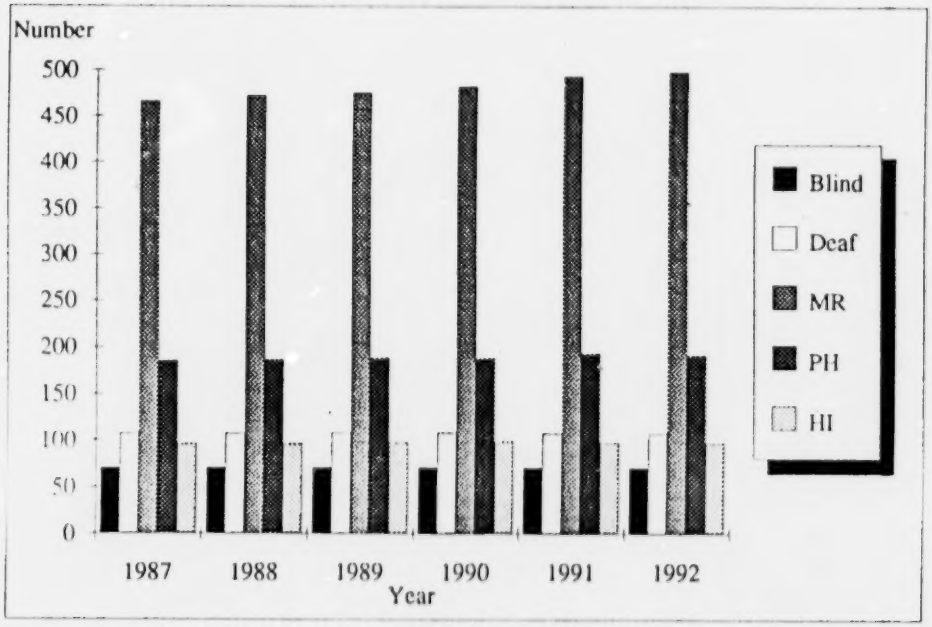
Table 5.1.1.4 Trend in Number of Special Schools

	Blind	Deaf	MR	PH	HI
1987	70	107	466	185	96
1988	70	107	472	186	96
1989	70	108	475	188	97
1990	70	108	482	188	99
1991	70	107	493	193	97
1992	70	107	498	191	97

MR: Mentally Retarded
PH: Physically Handicapped
HI: Health Impaired

Ministfy of Education, Science & Culture (1993).
Special Education Statistiscs. p.p. 4-5. (in Japanese)

Figure 5.1.1.4 Trend in Number of Special Schools



5.1.3 This small number is quite a surprise to educational personnel in many developed countries. In the United States, for example, 4,367,630 children and youth with disabilities from 6 through 21 in age were served under the public laws(US Department of Education, 1992) [23]. This means that approximately 7.6% of the nation's resident population of children and youths were served.

5.1.4 One factor regarding the relatively small number of children with special educational needs in Japan and related to the presence of remedial instruction at "Juku" is that the number in this population is not counted in any official statistics or reports. This issue will be discussed later.

5.1.5 For five years, the number of handicapped children and youth in special classes reported under the School Education Law has decreased significantly across all handicapping conditions. As for children and youth served in special schools, the number has decreased slightly in five years.

5.1.6 Compulsory education for the handicapped in the academic year of 1979 resulted in a drastic decrease in the number of children who were postponed or exempted from schooling. The number of these children plunged from 9,872 in 1978 to 1,224 in 1992 [24].

6. Classroom Management

6.1.1 Seemingly, Japanese teachers spend much less time on direct discipline and classroom management issues than do American teachers [25]. Instead, their time is spent guiding interpersonal relations and arranging the instructional patterns of mixed-ability grouping in the belief that peer supervision, peer teaching, and group learning can be more effective for all students.

6.1.2 This conception of classroom processes and of the teacher's role is one strategy for dealing with diversity in classrooms. At the school level, diversity is also dealt

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23/ US Department of Education (1992). To Assure the Free Appropriate Public Education of All Children with Disabilities. Fourteenth Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, Washington DC. : US Government Printing Office. p. 7.

24/ Research and Statistic Planning Division (1993). Report on School Basic Survey. . Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. p. 23. (in Japanese)

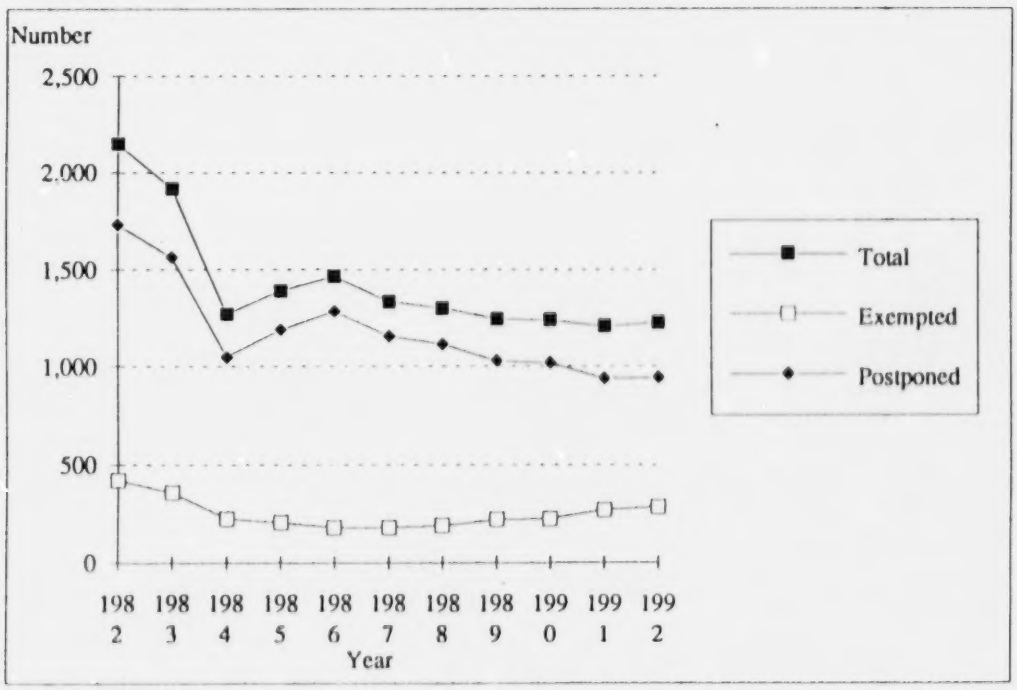
25/ Sato, N. & McLaughlin, M.W. (1992). Context Matters: Teaching in Japan and in the United States. Phi Delta Kappan, 73(5), p. 361.

Table 5.1.6: Number of Children Exempted/Postponed from Schooling

Year	Total	Exempted	Postponed
1982	2,146	420	1,726
1983	1,915	354	1,561
1984	1,268	222	1,046
1985	1,388	203	1,185
1986	1,462	179	1,283
1987	1,331	178	1,153
1988	1,301	189	1,112
1989	1,243	218	1,025
1990	1,238	223	1,015
1991	1,205	269	936
1992	1,224	283	941

Research and Statistic Planning Division (1993). Report on School Basic Survey. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. p. 23.(in Japanese)

Figure 5.1.6: Number of Children Exempted/Postponed from Schooling



with on an individual basis in terms of personality, academic interests, and accomplishments. For instance, moving whole classes along together regardless of achievement may create a greater range of abilities within Japanese classrooms than is likely to occur in the developed countries where retention is common and skipping grades is not unheard of. Japanese teachers tend to believe that all students can learn from the diversity within the group.

6.1.3 Teachers also believe that the whole-group lesson, when done well, can benefit every child and teach important lessons about social interaction and problem solving, as well as about subject matters. However, whole-group directed instruction in the classroom does not meet the needs of individual students. In fact, the number of students who have fallen behind is increasing and is one of the societal issues.

7. "The Fallen Behind"

7.1.1 The demanding curriculum is difficult for students with learning problems. Three aspects of education policy compound this problem: the view that effort alone can compensate for differences in ability; little provision for diagnosis of learning disabilities and individualized remedial assistance; and automatic promotion, which increases the pressure on students who have fallen behind as they face an increasing burden of academic demands. Inevitably, the number increases with grade level, accompanied by attendant disaffection with school. The Ministry of Education, Science and Culture's recent survey reveals that .14% of elementary students were identified as school phobia/truancy for 30 days or more of attendant disaffection from school [26]. In the lower secondary schools, 1.04% of students fell into the same category. That is, 5 students in a typical upper secondary school do not show up in school for more than 30 days a school year.

7.1.2 In addition, 42% of elementary students of attendant disaffection with schools more than 50 days a year failed to resume for schooling; 62% of lower secondary students failed to show up to school in the following school year [27].

7.2 Dropout

7.2.1 A dropout rate of senior high school students in 1990 was 2.2%, numbering

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26/ Research and Statistic Planning Division (1993). Report on School Basic Survey. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. pp. 66-69. (in Japanese)

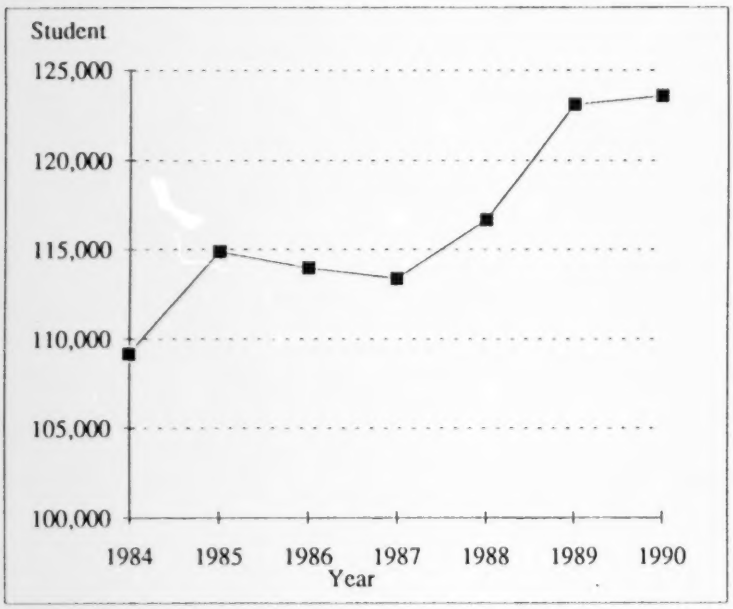
27/ Ibid., p. 66.

Table 7.2.1: School Dropout

Year	Student
1984	109,160
1985	114,843
1986	113,938
1987	113,357
1988	116,617
1989	123,069
1990	123,529

Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (1992).
Dropout from Public and Private Senior High Schools. Tokyo. p. 350.

Figure 7.2.1: School Dropout



123,529 out of 5,609,353 students [28].

7.3 School Bullying

7.3.1 While disaffection with schools appears to be growing in the face of the rigidities of the present school system, the unwillingness of alienated students including handicapped students and returnees from abroad to participate in formal education and to observe group norm is considered as a rejection of large social system. School bullying represents group behavior gone out of control. It is a disturbing problem for the public that values order and harmony. Though school bullying is reported on a small scale, it reflects anxiety on the part of parents, school personnel, and general public about opening the system to greater diversity and individualism.

8. Curriculum and Instruction

8.1.1 Overall, Japanese education provides all children with balanced basic instruction in the 3-R's, science, music, and art throughout the nine years of compulsory schooling. However, the basic goals both for regular and special education encompass a greater range of competencies, including social, aesthetic, and interpersonal skills. First of all, skill in human relations is considered essential to social life. Schools and teachers consequently place a great emphasis on developing children's interpersonal skills and promoting a sense of social cohesion and collective responsibility through a wealth of nonacademic and academic learning actives. Second, Japanese generally view academic knowledge as merely one part of the more comprehensive goal of developing 'ningen' or the 'whole person.' It is assumed that the broad educational goals set for children cannot be accomplished if there is a separation of heart and body. On the basis of the 'whole person' educational premise, the teachers' routine responsibilities pertain to aesthetic, physical, moral, and social development of the children [29].

8.1.2 Experience with a wealth of nonacademic learning activities, such as cultural ceremonies at each grade level, is considered essential to this process as well as to full comprehension of academic subject matter. Thus, it is assumed that broader and "difficult to measure" educational goals are set for students in school, such as "to be friendly each other, to foster a sense of healthy body and mind, to work in

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28/ Japanese Children's Association (1992). Children's White Paper. Tokyo. p. 54. (in Japanese)

29/ Takemura, S. (1991). A Study of the Knowledge Base for Science Teaching as Perceived by Elementary School Teachers in Japan and the United States. Paper presented at the annual meeting of JUSTEC, Stanford University, July 1991.

harmonious way," and so on. It is rare to see school mottoes, such as "to be able to read and write the kanji of the grade level. "

8.1.3 There are a number of children with special educational needs (SEN) who, for a variety of reasons, may do better at first in a nonintegrated environment or a home-based program. Others may benefit from flexible approaches and may spend part of the week in special programs and in limited inclusion programs with non-SEN peers. Transactional programs are becoming common between children with SEN and non-SEN children. These programs involve field trips, open house events, club activities, and so on. Such programs are intended to give SEN children opportunities to learn and play with children who will someday be their friends, coworkers, and neighbors. Both groups benefit from being together on a regular basis during the years when their attitudes and perceptions of themselves and others are most pliable. As a result, the peer interaction will facilitate the self-esteem of children regardless of the presence of handicaps. However, the mainstreaming issue is still in limbo.

9. Parent's Motivation in Education and Parent-Financed Institution

9.1 Parent's Motivation in Education

9.1.1 To a great extent, Japanese are eager to learn. This ethos of pursuing new understanding and relevant knowledge leads to a strong commitment to personal education and self-improvement which extends beyond the official school system to a variety of institutions, programs, and opportunities.

9.2 Parent-Financed Institution

9.2.1 Of special significance for school age children are the Juku--the unofficial parent-financed schools which supplement the official system. They seem to meet important educational needs for many families. Juku is the Japanese term for a large and diverse group of private, profitmaking, tutorial, enrichment or remedial, preparatory, and cram schools found throughout the country. Most Juku operate after school hours and on weekends. Juku parallel the official school system in a somewhat interdependent relationship. These Juku are a response to several realities in Japanese education.

9.2.2 The Juku can be classified into academic and nonacademic. The latter offer instruction for general enrichment purposes in a wide variety of subjects such as abacus, piano, calligraphy, and so on.

9.2.3 The Juku enterprise today is a recent phenomenon, paralleling the expansion and development of secondary and higher education. The growth during the past two decades has been dramatic. A national survey conduced in 1990 by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture shows a great hike in the tuition by 20% over

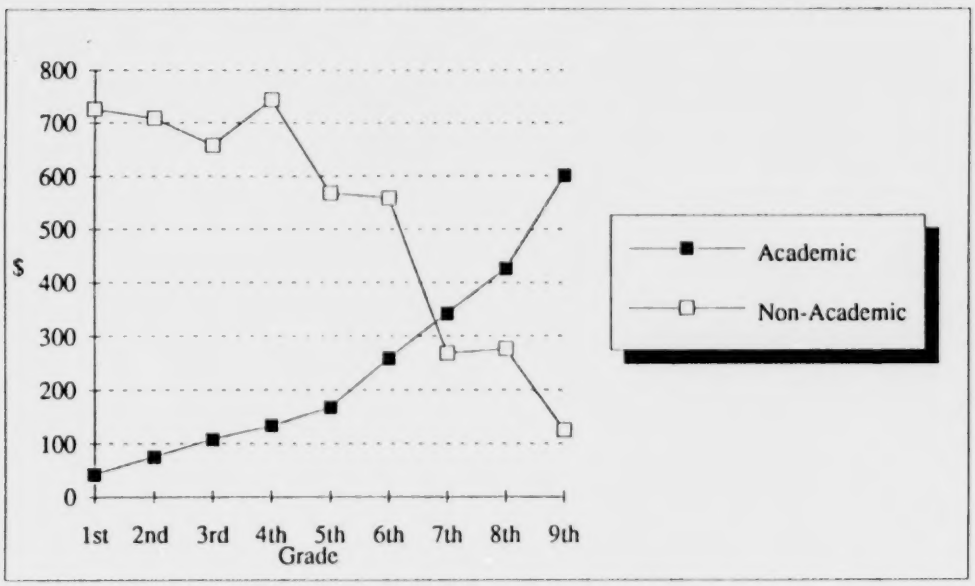
Table 9.2.3.1: Costs of Academic and Non-Academic Instruction

Grade	Academic	Non-Academic
1st	42	725
2nd	75	708
3rd	108	658
4th	133	742
5th	167	567
6th	258	558
7th	342	267
8th	425	275
9th	600	125

(US$)

Nikkei Shinbun (1992). August, 9. p.14.

Figure 9.2.3.1: Costs of Academic and Non-Academic Instruction



1989(Nikkei Shinbun, 1992) [30]. In 1990 the average family with one child for academic and nonacademic instruction paid $1,629 in the preschooling, $1,664 in elementary schooling, $2,087 in lower secondary schooling, and $2,630 in the upper secondary schooling, respectively. Parents shoulder the burden. However, the fees for nonacademic instruction tend to decline. The average family with one elementary child paid $624, with lower secondary student, $207, and with upper secondary students, $151, respectively.

9.2.4 Nevertheless, Juku attendance has risen at all grade levels. Those taking lessons in the traditional arts amounted to 26.2% at 4th, 5th and 6th grade level, 46.7% at the lower secondary school level in 1990 (Yukawa, 1992) [31]. However, the number of children taking lessons at Juku or studying under home tutors hired by their parents were 78% at the elementary school level and 92 % at the lower secondary school level in 1985 (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 1987) [32]. As children advance through the higher elementary grades and into lower secondary school, there is a tendency for more students to enroll in preparatory and examination programs. There are no equivalents to this monstrous Juku boom in any other country (Lynn, 1988) [33].

9.2.5 Academic Juku offer instruction in school subjects such as math, language art, science, English and social studies. Many Juku provide both kinds of services as well as remedial assistance for those having difficulties with their schooling. Home tutors tend to be considerably more expensive, and the number of families employing them is only a fraction of those sending their children to Juku. Combining costs of Juku and home tutor, for students of elementary and lower and secondary school age, the fees rose 21% from the 1989 year. For upper secondary students, the fees rose 25% from 1989(Nikkei Shinbun, 1992) [34].

30/ Nikkei Shinbun(1992). Cost of Juku and Home Tutor, August 9, 1992. p. 14.

31/ Yukawa, R. (1992). "Children's Life and Culture". In M. Hirayama (Ed.), Japanese Children's Almanac. pp. 443.

32/ Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1987). Report on Survey of Out-of-School Education Activities by Elementary and Lower Secondary School Children: 1985 Academic Year. Ministry of Education, Science and Culture: Tokyo. (in Japanese)

33/ Lynn, R. (1988). Educational Achievement in Japan: Lessons for the West. London: Macmillan. p. 103.

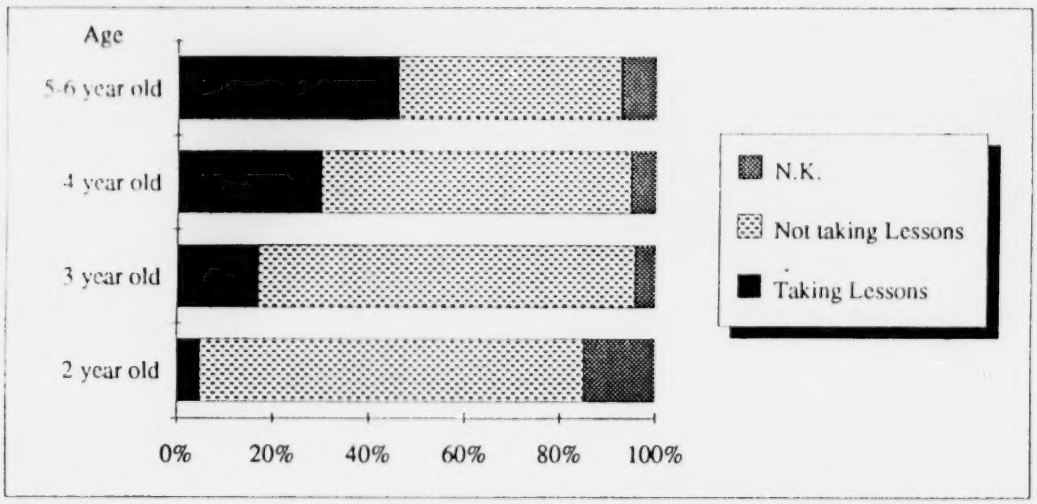
34/ Ibid., p. 14.

Table 9.2.4: Children Taking Academic and Non-Academic Lessons

	Taking Lessons	Not taking Lessons	N.K.
2 year old	4.9	80.2	14.9
3 year old	17.1	78.6	4.3
4 year old	30	64.8	5.2
5-6 year old	45.9	46.7	7.3

Yukawa, R. (1992). Children's Life and Culture. In M. Hirayama (Ed.), Japanese Childre's Almanac. p.443.

Figure 9.2.4: Children Taking Academic and Non-Academic Lessons



9.2.6 Japanese parents are concerned about doing whatever they can for their children's education. If the rising enrollments in Juku are any indication, cost is not yet a limiting factor for most parents. Juku clearly are given some priority in family budgeting. Juku fees depend on the grade level of the student, number of courses taken, and the amount of individual instruction involved.

9.2.7 Hundreds of thousands of students with SEN, as well as non-SEN students, are studying at Juku in order to catch up or to brush up. Although it is observed that the Juku are not a healthy phenomenon from a governmental and societal viewpoint, they seem to have been meeting important educational needs for many students and their families. Juku meet: 1) the need for supplementary instruction to enable many elementary and secondary students to keep pace with a demanding school curricula, and 2) the need for remedial instruction to help those who have fallen behind to catch up.

10. Hard to Read Children and New Educational Service

10.1.1 Japanese children, spending one-fourth of their time in elementary school mastering their own language, have to learn three separate writing systems: Chinese characters and two Japanese phonetic symbols. This is a complex task. During the first year of elementary schooling, children learn to read and write the two 48-character phonetic systems and 80 Chinese characters. It is not until the end of the 9-year compulsory period that children have mastered the approximately 2,000 characters necessary to basic literacy, enough to read books and newspapers. It may be pointed out that Chinese characters (kanji) are easier to learn than are individual Japanese phonetic symbol (kana), because kanji represent meaningful words while kana represent meaningless syllables. Stevenson, et al. (1982) found that both Chinese and Japanese first and fifth graders performed no better than did American counterparts in terms of sight reading of vocabulary and the reading of meaningful text and comprehension of text [35].

10.1.2 The number of at-risk children who demonstrate difficulty with reading has been reckoned at 5--6 percent in a preliminary study of elementary schools. Professor Yamada, et al. of Hiroshima University has recently revealed that approximately six percent of sample population in the elementary schools showed difficulties in reading units of Chinese characters and two phonetic systems and in

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35/ Stevenson, H.W., Stigler, J.W., Lucker, G. W., Lee, S.Y., Hsu, C.C., Kitamura, S. (1982). Reading disabilities: The case of Chinese, Japanese, and English. Child Development, 53, 1164-1181.

simple orderly calculation(Yamada & Banks, 1992) [36]. Their study shows that dyslexia exists to a significant degree in Japan. Some 25 years ago, Makita (1968) [37] answered negatively to this question on the basis of the results of his own questionnaire study which showed that the incidence of dyslexic children in Japan was less than one percent. Uncritical acceptance of Makita's research has the unfortunate result of discouraging dyslexia research with Japanese children.

10.2 "Tsukyu": Resource Room Service

10.2.1 One way to providing a new individually oriented service is called "tsukyu" (part-time special class system). This service is aimed at making more flexible services possible for students who are not responsive to instruction or who are disruptive in class. These students may evidence problems in reading, arithmetic, or other school subjects, in social adjustment or motivation, or in basic reading skills such as language and perception. It is quite clear today that the great majority of difficult students, however, remain in the regular class under almost no supervision of the teacher [38]. "Tsukyu" is a promising alternative to self-contained facilities. This model permits the student to receive instruction individually or in groups in a special room outfitted for that purpose. This new type of service can be one alternative for handling below-average learners, similar to the 'resource room' model. Many students presently enrolled in regular classes will be served in "tsukyu" settings. This alternative is implemented on a trial basis at the national government level in 1992, and its full-scale implementation will start on April, 1994.

11. Upper Secondary Schooling, Transition and Employment

11.1 Upper Secondary Schooling

11.1.1 By the end of 9th grade, all students who desire to continue their schooling have been successfully matched with an upper secondary level school. Approximately 96 % of all Japanese children advance to full-time enrollment in one

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36/ Yamada, J. & Banks, A. (in press). Dyslexia at 6% in Japan: Shattering a Myth. Annals of Dyslexia.

37/ Makita, k. (1968). The rarity of reading disability in Japanese children. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 38, 599-614.

38/ Yamaguchi, K. (1992). Tsukyu: A New Educational Service to Students with Special Educational Needs. Report to the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. Tokyo.

or another kind of upper-secondary school [39]. About 2% enter some type of part-time education program. Approximately 2% take a full-time job.

11.1.2 Upper secondary education beyond 9 years is not mandatory. However, all prefectural governments run separate schools for the upper secondary handicapped population. Approximately, 76% of the graduates of 9 years compulsory schools for the handicapped proceed to upper-secondary schooling [40]. In the case of graduates from special classes in regular lower-secondary schools, about 50% go to upper secondary schools .

11.1.3 There are no standardized criteria for a certificate or diploma of completion upon graduation in the Japanese special education system. Therefore, the problem of dropping out--leaving school before high school graduation-- is not common to the handicapped. To address this issue, we should recall: 1) non-existence of minimum competency measures, and 2) the existence of remedial instruction provided in private educational sectors.

11.2 Transition and Employment

11.2.1 Vocational education is viewed as an expansion of the work/study in regular curricula in special schools. The work/study program is fairly narrow in its goals, generally given in upper secondary departments of special schools, largely focused on serving students with mild and moderate handicaps, typically implemented in programs reserved for students with disabilities. The vocational education programs aim to improve a whole range of social adaptation skills as well as work skills so students can lead independent lives after schooling.

11.2.2 The employment rate of the upper secondary students has increased in the last 5 years, either in part-time or full-time basis. The graduates of schools for the deaf are comparatively well employed, though their employment rate has decreased in the same period. Overall, 35% of the graduates were reported to have obtained employment in the 1992 school year [41].

11.2.3 Employment of graduates from schools for the mentally retarded appears to be comparatively higher than for persons otherwise handicapped. Thirty-nine

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39/ Research and Statistic Planning Division (1993). Report on School Basic Survey. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. p. 19. (in Japanese)

40/ Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1991).Special Education Statistics. Tokyo. p. 37. (in Japanese)

41/ Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1992).Special Education Statistics. Tokyo. p. 38. (in Japanese)

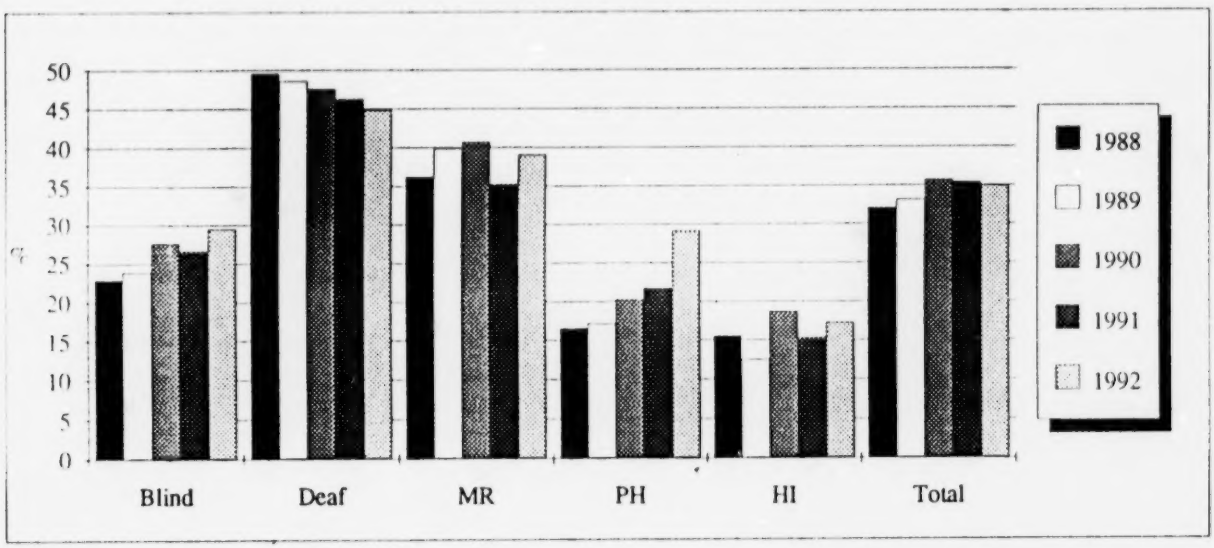
Table 11.2.2: Students Employed After Schooling

Student	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Blind	22.9	23.9	27.6	26.6	29.5
Deaf	49.6	48.6	47.6	46.3	44.9
MR	36.2	39.9	40.7	35.2	39
PH	16.5	17.1	20.2	21.6	29.1
HI	15.5	12.5	18.6	15.3	17.2
Total	32	33.1	35.7	35.4	34.9

MR: Mentally Retarded
PH: Physically Handicapped
HI: Health Impaired

Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (1993).
Special Education Statistics. Tokyo. p.38.

Figure 11.2.2: Students Employed After Schooling



percents of graduates with mental retardation were employed either full-time or part-time base in the 1992 school year. Even supported employment is getting tougher every year due to in part the recession in the business community [42].

12. The Disabled in Community

12.1.1 The Ministry of Health and Welfare figures for 1987 put the number of physically disabled persons at 2.6 millions. As of 1990, the ministry reports 386,100 mentally retarded persons [43]. Numbers of these two groups are allowed to hold an official ID as the disabled. Those people are eligible to a variety of social welfare services.

12.1.2 A large number of people known to be mentally retarded are not officially recognized. To make an estimate, approximately one million people are in this category. Simple addition of recognized and unrecognized disabled people ends up with 4 millions. The number of the disabled in Japan represents 3.5% of the entire population. However, most of developed countries recognize the disabled constituting 10% or more: USA 17%, UK and Netherlands 10%, Belgium 12.5%, et al (Mogi, 1992) [44].

12.1.3 The idea of the International Year of the Disabled was clearly expressed in its theme "Handicapped People's Total Participation in Society and Equal Rights." Though a better recognition of handicapped people as citizens to comprise a part of society and have the same rights, there are still ongoing and traditional prejudices against handicapped people. Prejudices are deep rooted in nature. The Law Concerning Employment Promotion for the Handicapped requires companies to employ handicapped people at a certain employment rate.

12.1.4 Japan has enacted a law promoting the employment of the physically handicapped for years. The Japanese government's stance toward this law was exposed when it adopted the International Labor Organization's Resolution 99 in 1955. The government regarded the term "disabled persons" as physically handicapped persons. Concerned people felt that this was not an inadvertent error, but rather an intentional alteration made to exclude the mentally retarded (Mogi, 1992) [45]. Though the mentally retarded were excluded from the provision for many

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[42]/ Ibid.

[43]/ Mogi, T. (1992). The Disabled in Society. JAPAN QUARTERLY, 38(4), 440-448.

[44]/ Ibid. p. 440.

[45]/ Ibid. p. 444.

years, the legislation to facilitate the employment of the disabled was revised and expanded to encompass the mentally retarded in 1987 [46]. The legislation has adopted a quota system for employing the retarded. This quota requires government agencies and private sectors to hire 1.6% of the total employees to be the disabled.

12.1.5 The Employment Security Bureau of the Ministry of Labor reports that 1.32 % of 16.2 million workers in companies were disabled persons in 1991. In more detailed report, 82.1% of companies which hire more than 1,000 workers did not meet the lawful requirement; forty percent of the companies which hire between 63 and 99 workers did not meet the quota requirement(Mogi, 1992) [47]. Overall, 48.2% of business community employed fewer disabled persons than mandated. Those companies are likely to be willing to be penalized rather than to employ the disabled. Consequently, smaller and medium size companies tend to hire the disabled.

12.1.6 It is likely that the disabled who could find employment is fortunate. In order to increase employment of the disabled, the government has boosted a system of work center and sheltered workshop where a wide range of job skill training services are provided for the disabled. This system has not been functioning enough to meet the needs of the disabled and their families. A number of parent-financed sheltered workshop have built to fulfill disabled persons' urgent longing for work. The national and local governments have been subsidizing these sheltered workshop and job skill training centers.

12.1.7 The national and local governments have set forth some reforms to guarantee income for the disabled. The national government has improved a previous pension system in 1985 in two ways. First, the previous pension plans were incorporated into the public pension system. Second, the disabled under 20 years of age are subject to pensions.

12.1.8 There are some other noteworthy changes taking place for the well being of the disabled. Discounts and/or free on public transportation have been established nationwide. Some local governments provide discount taxi services for the disabled.

13. Social Status of Teachers and Teacher Education

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[46]/ Ministry of Health and Welfare (Ed.) (1992). Six Welfare and Employment Legislation Affecting Persons with Disabilities. Tokyo. (in Japanese)

[47]/ Mogi, T. (1992). The Disabled in Society. JAPAN QUARTERLY, 38(4), p. 444.

13.1 Social Status of Teachers

13.1.1 Within the framework of the controlled school system, numerous conceptions of teachers and their roles exist. One point of contention is the degree to which Japanese teachers are civil servants, obligated to follow the scripted guidelines and mandates imposed by the national government. Another point of contention is the degree to which teachers are professionals with latitude to exercise their wisdom and professional judgement. Despite the central policy mandates and within an overall structure and curriculum dictated on a national level, Japanese teachers in fact have significant professional latitude to devise activities and create materials that meet the centrally defined instructional guidelines (Sato & MaLaughlin, 1992) [48].

13.1.2 Education is assigned high value by the Japanese, who deem it a top priority. Many Japanese consider people to be their most important resource, because Japan has few natural resources and scarce agricultural lands. The position of schools in Japanese society and the esteem accorded teachers reflect the high value assigned to education by the Japanese.

13.1.3 There is a greater degree of mutual obligation and responsibility between teachers, parents, and students within Japanese schools and between schools and other institutions in society. The Japanese assume that everyone must share in the effort to educate the young. When problems occur, everyone is expected to accept responsibility, although schools and teachers bear the main responsibility for education.

13.1.4 Professional norms and arrangements require Japanese teachers to allocate more time to their jobs. Because schools run Monday through Saturday (except the second Saturday of the month,) Japanese teachers work many more days than do their counterparts in the developed countries [49].

13.1.5 The structure of Japanese teachers' workdays accommodates a broader conception of their role: Japanese teachers do not teach all day, as do American teachers, and spend many more hours at school each day than do American teachers, but they typically have fewer teaching hours. Only about 60% of their school time is spent in classroom activities; the remainder of the day is spent carrying out extracurricular responsibilities and fulfilling other duties to the school.

13.2 Teacher Education

48/ Sato, N. & McLaughlin, M.W. (1992). Context Matters: Teaching in Japan and in the United States. Phi Delta Kappan, 73(5), 359-366.

49/ US Department of Education (1987). Japanese Education Today. Washington D.C. : US Government Printing Office.

13.2.1 Education is assigned supreme value by most Japanese, who deem it a top priority. Therefore, Japanese teachers are an essential element in the success of individual growth, and the eventual prosperity of the society. Japanese society entrusts major responsibilities to teachers and expects much from them. It not only confers high social status and economic rewards, but also subjects teachers to constant public scrutiny. Japanese culture views the school as a moral community and a basic training ground for becoming a good citizen. Teachers have broad responsibilities for providing moral education and character development and for instilling fundamental values and attitudes. In this context, teachers are expected to infuse cultural values throughout all phases of schooling. Teachers are responsible for students' lives both inside and outside the school buildings.

13.2.3 The number of teachers who were newly hired by local education board has been significantly decreasing, which parallels a decrease of students enrolled in special schools and special classes. A narrow chance of being employed as a teacher in special education is one of the discouraging factors for prospective teachers in the training programs (Misawa, 1990) [50].

13.2.4 Teachers in special schools are legally required to have a special education teacher certificate. However, teachers in special classes are not required. The Law for Teacher Certification of 1954 has given legal ground for teachers with only regular teacher certificate to be appointed as teachers for special schools. In fact, quite a few teachers in special schools have been appointed without being licensed.

13.2.4 Teachers are basically the only professional staff in the school. There is no specific provision for employing other disciplines such as speech therapist, physical therapist, school psychologist, guidance counselor, and so on.

13.3 Initial Training

13.3.1 Approximately 84% of all colleges and universities and 84% of the junior colleges are helping prepare teachers [51]. The more than 800 institutions involved in teacher preparation now graduate nearly 175,000 students annually with teaching credentials. This figure represents approximately one-third of the total number of

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50/ Misawa, G. (1990). Teacher Education to Enhance the Quality of Special Education. Report at JUSTEC.

51/ Hayakawa, M. (1986). The Quality and Socioeconomic Status of Teachers in Japan. Paper presented for the U.S. Study of Education in Japan, U.S. Department of Education, February 1986. p. 23.

college and universities graduates in Japan [52].

13.3.2 In regard to teacher education for students with SEN, 53 national universities and 24 private universities have been playing a core role in teacher education in addition to those of regular elementary and lower and upper secondary schools. In response to the over supply of teachers, there has been an increase of universities establishing curriculum which do not impose acquisition of teacher license, although they are teacher education institutions [53].

13.3.3 Statistics of universities, junior colleges, and graduate courses accredited by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture to offer teacher education courses are as follows: [54]

Teacher Certificate for School for the Blind	
Undergraduate courses	4
Graduate Courses	1
Authorized teacher training institute	1
Teacher Certificate for School for the Deaf	
Undergraduate courses	10
Graduate Courses	2
Graduate Diploma Course	3
Teacher Certificate for School for the Handicapped	
Undergraduate courses	76
Graduate Courses	10
Graduate Diploma Course	20

13.3.4 Minimum requirements for student teaching in teacher preparation courses are 4 weeks (4 credits) for the elementary program and 2 weeks (2 credits) for the secondary program. A prospective teacher meets the formal academic requirements through successful completion of prescribed courses of study in a post-secondary institution. However, no matter how good one's academic record may have been, graduation from a university does not guarantee appointment to a teaching position. Most public school teachers are prefectural employees. A license awarded by any prefecture is valid in all prefectures. The applicant must take prefectural

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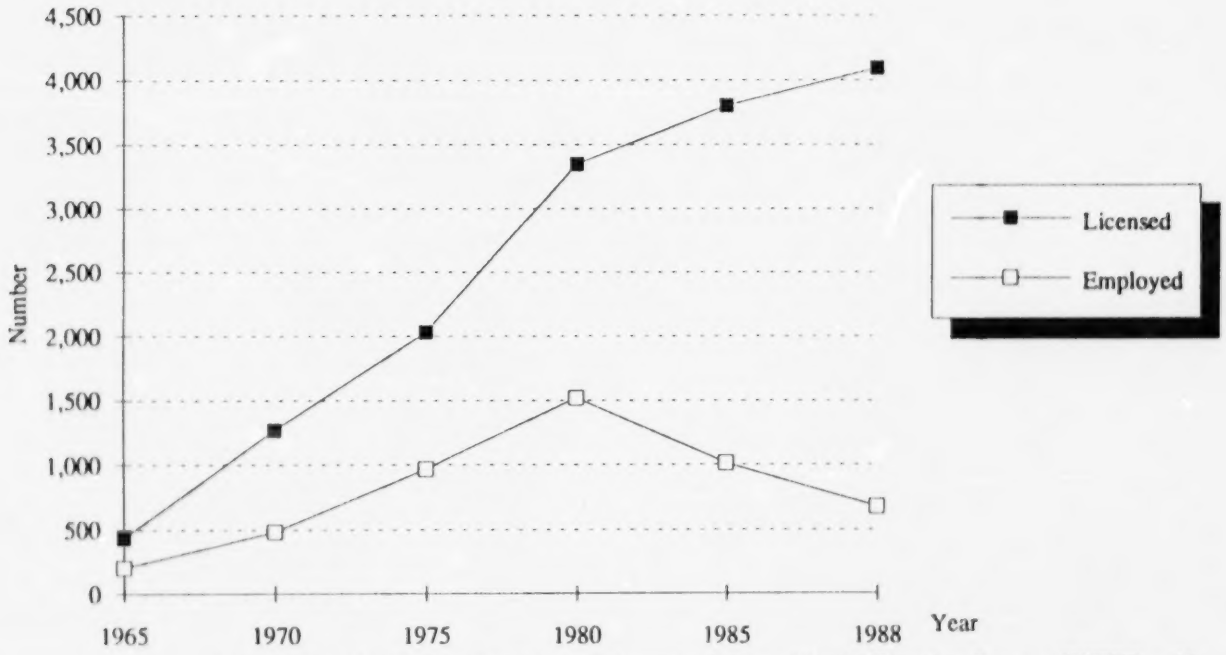
52/ Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1986). The Board of Education Monthly Review. November 16. Tokyo. (in Japanese)

53/ Misawa, G. (1990). Teacher Education to Enhance the Quality of Special Education. Report at JUSTEC. p. 7.

54/ Misawa, G. (1990). Teacher Education to Enhance the Quality of Special Education. Report at JUSTEC. p. 6.

Figure 13.3.2: Employed Teachers with Teaching License



Misawa, G. (1990). Teacher Education to Enhance the Quality of Special Education. Report at JUSTEC. p. 18.

appointment examinations which help ensure that all applicants compete on equal terms for any teaching vacancies.

13.3.5 Once applicants gain entry to the teaching profession, they are assured lifetime employment. They are promoted on the basis of seniority, as are all public sector employees. The idea of performance-based merit pay is not a viable consideration mostly because of the seniority system. As a result, all prefectures and municipal boards of education are careful in recruiting new teachers.

13.4 Inservice Training

13.4.1 It has been widely recognized by education experts that there are three critical factors for the quality of elementary and secondary education: curriculum, teachers, and school management. This is most true in Japanese education as well. The Ministry of Education has been making efforts to improve the quality of teachers for years. One of the recent efforts is a new induction training system for beginning teachers of 1989. This program requires all "teacher novices" in the public schools to participate in a one year induction training under the mentor teachers' supervision. Local education centers incorporate partially in the system.

13.4.2 Continuing education on the job reflects Japan's cultural commitment to self-improvement as well as a response to perceived weaknesses in formal teacher preparation. Prefectural and local boards of education are not wholly satisfied with university teacher preparation. The Ministry of Education requires first-year teachers to receive a minimum of 20 days of inservice training during that year. Much of the 20 days of inservice training required of new teachers takes place in the schools where they teach and is carried out under the supervision of teaching supervisors.

13.4.3 Under the direction of The Ministry of Education and prefectural and municipal boards of education, inservice training is offered for public school teachers at all levels and at various career stages. Under the direction of the Monbusho and prefectural and municipal boards of education, inservice training is offered for public school teachers at all levels and at various career stages. It takes five forms:

1) Inschool training;
2) Informal inservice training carried out by teachers themselves in district-wide study groups;
3) Training given at the local education center;
4) Training given to principals, vice principals,and curriculum consultants by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture at national training centers; and,
5) Two-year training given to a few hundred nationally selected teachers annually at three nationally funded institutions established since 1978 for the purpose of providing graduate professional education for experienced teachers.

13.4.4 One of the commendable characteristics of the teaching profession in Japan is

the extent to which inservice education is teacher initiated and directed. Teacher organizations also sponsor training and research related activities.

13.5 Voluntary Professional Growth

13.5.1 Japanese teachers generally have a strong commitment to their profession. They try to maximize their own professional growth and that of their peers. Thus, teachers systematically engage in a wide variety of activities aimed at enriching their professional expertise. Teachers participate in formal research groups. Other teachers form voluntary study groups in which members review and critically evaluate one another's curriculum activities and ideas. These groups meet outside of school time and take up such diverse topics as painting techniques, choir directing, poetry, voice projection, teaching gymnastics, and social studies concepts. In addition to these outside activities, teachers regularly hold professional development activities in the school with the dual goal of enhancing individual competence and fostering group identity.

13.6 Licensed Teacher

13.6.1 Employment examination of public special schools and special classes is administered by board of educations of prefectures and special cities. Local governments have a special quota system for special teachers. Other governments have different systems where the quota imposes on hiring regular elementary, lower and upper secondary education, while teachers with special education licensure are included in the quota. A number of teachers with teacher license in special education are employed at regular schools.

13.6.2 The statistics issued from the Ministry of Education show that approximately one-third of those teaching special classes in regular elementary and lower secondary schools are licensed as special education teachers [55].

14. Teacher Salaries

14.1.1 The salary structure for public school teachers is established by the Japanese National Personnel Authority. While legally applicable only to national schools, in practice this structure provides the model on which salary structures of public schools throughout the country are based.

14.1.2 The base salary of a Japanese teacher depends heavily on seniority. Salary is not substantially affected by degree and certificate level. There is no differential between salaries of teachers with a master's degree and those with a bachelor's degree.

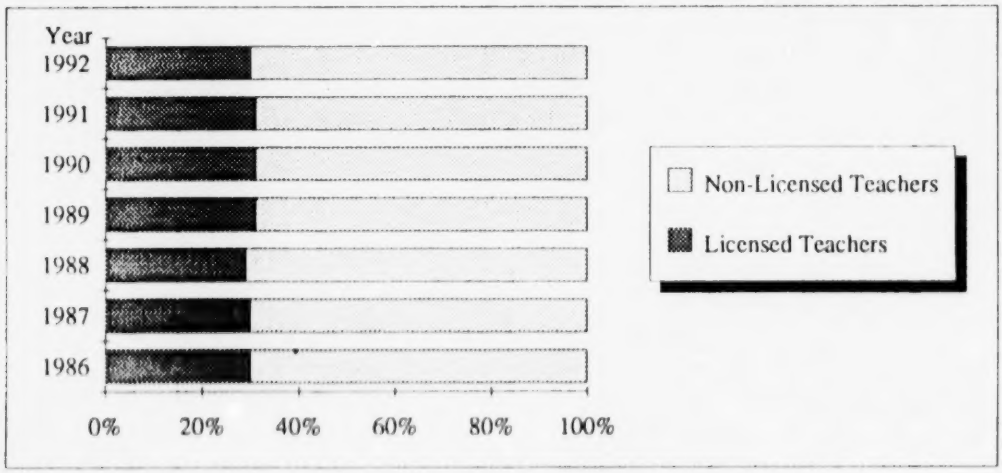
55/ Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1991). Special Education in Statistics. Tokyo. p. 29.

Table 13.6.2: Licensed Special Education Teachers

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Licensed Teachers	30	30	29	31	31	31	30
Non-Licensed Teachers	70	70	71	69	69	69	70

Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (1993). Special Education Statistics. p. 29.

Figure 13.6.2: Licensed Special Education Teachers



14.1.3 Generally speaking, Japanese special education teachers are well paid among the developed countries (Ohashi, 1993) [56]. These teachers have been given a special allowance hike of 8% as an incentive. Central, prefecutural, and municipal governments share the financial arrangements for that measure.

14.1.4 Female teachers are among the very few women in Japan who are given the right to take one-year leave of absence after childbirth. However, they are not paid during the leave.

15. Financing Special Education

15.1 Public Educational Expenditure

15.1.1 Japanese leaders were not long in recognizing the importance of education for national solidarity and economic development. They continually gave a priority to education in spending public resources. The funding formula devoted a great part of its public resources to education in spite of having a relatively low level of National Income for about the first fifty years of the modern school system (Kaser, 1966) [57]. Japan's current public educational expenditure is rather small in comparison to its Gross National Expenditure. This is partly due to the fact that the public sector does not play as great a role in its national economy as it does in many other developed countries (National Institute for Educational Research of Japan, 1991) [58].

15.2 National and Local Governments

15.2.1 The cost of public education is shared by national, prefectural and municipal government and, augmented at upper-secondary and higher education levels by tuition from parents. The Ministry of Education provides almost half of the total public expenditure on education. The Ministry of Education funds the more than 600 national education institutions at all educational levels. It also provides subsidies for educational purposes to private institutions, prefectures, and municipalities. The national government also makes local allocation tax grants to

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56/ Ohashi, T. (1993). Education for the Handicapped in US and Japan. Special Education in the World, Vol. 7. (in Japanese)

57/ Kaser, M.C. (1966). Education and Economic Progress: Experience in Industrialized Market Economies. In The Economics of Education. In E.A.G. Robinson & J.E. Vaizey (Eds.), London: Macmillan. p.p. 119-121.

58/ National Institute for Educational Research of Japan (1991). Distinctive Features of Japanese Education. NIER Occasional Paper. p. 4.

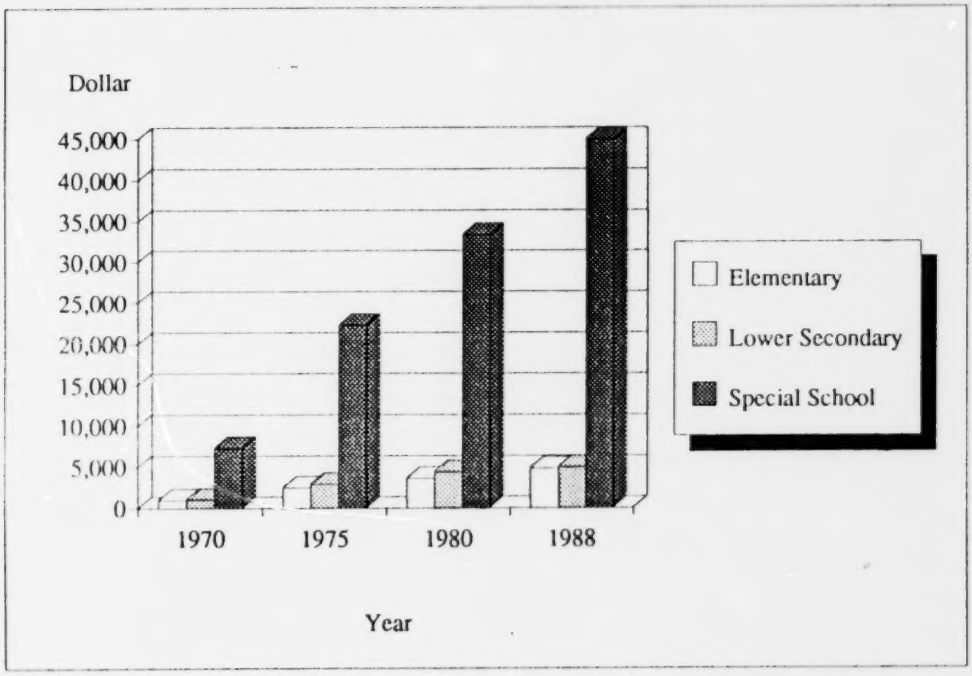
Table 15.3.2: Education Cost Per Student

Year	Elementary	Lower Secondary	Special School
1970	960	1,055	7,313
1975	2,511	2,946	22,230
1980	3,606	4,400	33,432
1988	4,824	4,993	44,977

(Dollar)

Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (1991). Special Education in Japan. Tokyo. p.37.

Figure 15.3.2: Education Cost Per Student



health impaired [61].

16.1.2 One problem is determining the actual level of computer use. Indications are that the significant use of computers is very low. In many special schools, computers sit idle, and instruction via computers is limited. While few teachers view computer technology as detrimental to learning, many claim to be unfamiliar with computer technology applied to teaching and, as a result, they are not strongly motivated to use them. To make matters worse, teachers do not have clearcut goals to use them [62]. With computers in special schools, teachers spend a great deal of time on repetitive manual labor. That is time away from students.

16.2 Teacher Training and Computers

16.2.1 One issue is that most special schools lack of teacher training and funding for purchasing educational software and peripherals that are required for students' easy access to computers [63]. Every year a number of computers are dumped into schools; computers tend to sit in the faculty room or business office, but not in the classroom. Purchasing computers in special schools is always a one shot deal. School administrators do not realize that it is never going to be cheap to buy technology, because they have to buy peripherals, software, maintenance, training, and upgrading.

16.2.2 Another issue is that since Japanese schools place much emphasis on pure knowledge, curricula that develop creative ability are relatively rare. Rote learning through CAI courseware is therefore typical of Japanese education (Cassagne & Iiyoshi, 1992) [64].

16.2.3 Furthermore, a nationwide software information network has not yet been established. A broad range of resources available for applied and adaptive technology has not been systematically evaluated. Consequently, information regarding successful applications and programs is not fully disseminated.

61/ Takuma, S., Narita, S., Nakamura, H., Matsumoto, H., & Munekata, T. (1991). Analyses of Computer Software Development for the Learning of Handicapped Children. NISE Bulletin, 4, 1-5.

62/ Narita, S. (1993). Computer Use in the Education for the Handicapped. NEW Education and Computer. April. pp. 114-116.

63/ Narita, S. (1993). Macintosh and Education: Man-Machine Interface. Mac Japan. 48. pp. 52-58.

64/ Cassagne, J. & Iiyoshi, T. (1992). The World View. MACWORLD, September, 237-239.

16.2.4 Training is critical. If teachers do not receive appropriate training, computers will continue to be used as electronic baby-sitters. In many training sessions in Japanese schools, instruction and hand-on experience computers is continuing, despite the fact that it has to be training in math and history. Those who are in charge of teacher training for educational computing do not know that training on computers or technology alone is not ineffective. These educators should ignore calls for technology equity and start exploring ways to achieve equity using technology.

17. Issues for the Future and Recommendations

17.1 Issues for the Future

17.1.1 In recent years, Japan has made considerable progress in national and prefectural policy actions, financial arrangements, facilities and equipment, and defining a national course of study [65]. With 13 years of implementation of a compulsory system of special education, early child-find and intervention, remedial services for slow learners, job training services and access to adult life skill training, finding qualified teachers for special schools, and parental involvement in various educational dimensions, are natural outcomes.

17.1.2 Concerns over educational services for students with learning difficulties have been voiced. The Ministry of Education has launched a pilot project to find better ways for serving these students. Nine schools have been chosen for experimental programs in the project. A new educational service called "tsukyu," a type of pull-out resource room instruction, will be launched soon for students with learning difficulties. Still the education system today is suffering from a disease whose symptoms are entrance exam-score competition, school disaffection and drop-out, violence in the schools, and so on. A question arises, "Can the tsukyu service for students with learning problem be medicine targeted the symptoms? Does it have effect or little effect?"

17.1.3 Free public education is facing numerous problems such as remaining competitive with private schools and the Juku in the academic area. The general public has found education in the private schools to be affordable and reliable. Parent advocacy groups are organizing private and unlicensed schools in which students with special learning problem learn whose educational needs are not met in the public schools.

17.1.4 The societal demands for qualified labor forces in the marketplace will result in increased responsibilities for special education personnel in all aspects of providing better services to meet the needs of children and parents. In other words,

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65/ Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (1991). Outline of Education in Japan 1991. Tokyo. p. 83.

we need a shift in focus in special education policy from 'access to services' to 'quality of services' in promoting comprehensive special education. This quality of educational services will be brought by such provisions as decentralization of control, school initiatives, flexibility in teaching, use of technology in instruction, and individualization of instruction.

17.2 Recommendations

17.2.1 National and Local Government Support/

17.2.1.1 It is widely noted that financial support by national and local government is necessary to ensure adequate development of early child-find and life-long programs for the handicapped. Even in Japan, problems are frequently too complex or overwhelming to be tackled without continuing support of national and local governments.

17.2.2 Collaborative Research/

17.2.2.1 Japan should more concentrate upon research of prevention and early intervention, paying particular attention to methods which will enhance the child's future educational achievement. In these areas, the nation should participate in collaborative research and development activities by incorporating other developed countries and disseminate its research data widely to other countries.

17.2.3 Pre-Service Training/

17.2.3.1 Teacher training institutions should provide basis teacher education for employment in regular schools be encouraged to incorporate substantial course components dealing with disabilities, special educational methods and basic principles and tools of educational diagnosis.

17.2.3.2 Teacher training for educational diagnosis and curriculum development should include the development of simple, objective and robust diagnostic procedures which relate directly to curriculum materials to be used.

17.2.4 Teacher Empowerment/

17.2.4.1 Teacher license should be renewed say every 5 year. Teachers should be monitored, evaluated and enlightened regarding their instructional skills and teaching effectiveness. Inservice training programs should be given on the basis of teachers' needs.

17.2.5 Child Finding /

17.2.5.1 Local child guidance centers, health clinics and institutes of special education should devote attention to the coordination of resources for public awareness of the access to health care services, referral for child find, diagnosis, assessment, treatment and program development in each community to facilitate effective working relationships between government and voluntary organizations as well as amongst the different professional disciples involved in special education and disability.

17.2.6 Educational Diagnosis and Assessment/

17.2.6.1 Educational diagnosis should be based on a dynamic appraisal of the whole child on the basis of methods which relate directly to subsequent remedial instruction. Such diagnosis and subsequent educational assessment which is directed towards evaluation of program effectiveness should be an inter-disciplinary venture including parental involvement and with the special education teacher.

17.2.7 Early Intervention/

17.2.7.1 It should be emphasized that the need for early educational diagnosis to take place at pre-school stage so that effective intervention programs can be set in progress as early as possible.

17.2.8 Parents' Commitment/

17.2.8.1 A necessary component in the development of effective educational diagnosis and remedial programs is to guide and inform parents regarding the nature of disability, their causes and implications. Parents should be systematically involved and play a vital role in the process.

17.2.8.2 It is imperative to promote, where possible, a range of readily available and accessible placement options throughout the period of schooling of each individual student. These options include long, medium and short term placement in schools for students on the basis of the 'least restrictive educational environment' premise.

Appendix

I. Special Education Institutions in Japan

1. National Institute of Special Education

A. Profile

The National Institute of Special Education(NISE) is the only agency in which research activities have been fully funded by the central government of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. Established in 1971 the Institute is pursuing the following missions:
1) to carry out practical interdisciplinary research studies in the education for the handicapped,
2) to conduct professional and technical in-service training for special educators and administrators,
3) to promote research projects in conjunction with prefectural education centers, universities, and colleges in the field of special education,
4) to cooperate closely with the National Kurihama Schools for the Handicapped in carrying out experimental study for severely and profoundly retarded children, and
5) to provide guidance and counseling services for handicapped children and their parents

NISE is staffed with 50 researchers, 1 psycho-therapist, 1 nurse, several clinical technicians, and 29 administrative staff members. In a library section of the Institute, approximately 26,000 books and 900 academic periodicals and reports are stored.

NISE has been providing with four types of in-service training programs:
1) long term training courses for special educators,
2) short term training courses for special educators,
3) workshops for training of newly-appointed principals and vice-principals in special schools, and
4) workshops for training of educational guidance personnel of local special education centers.

B. International Collaboration

Since 1981, NISE has been hosting the Asia and the Pacific Programme of Educational Innovation for Development (APEID Seminar). This program aims at strengthening educational cooperation among member nations of UNESCO in the Asia and Pacific region. Japan is taking an active role in the five fields: educational technology, vocational/technical educations, curriculum development, science education, and special education.

In addition, collaborative research projects are also carried out which are fully supported by Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research by the Ministry of Education. A new three-year collaborative project has started in 1992 focusing on teacher education with University of Minnesota, USA; University of Bologna, Italy; and University of Geteborg, Sweden.

C. NISE Organization

Director-General---Board of Counsellors

- Coordinator in Research and Planning
- Department of Administration
- Department of Education for the Visually Handicapped
  - Section of the Blind
  - Section of the Partially Sighted
- Department of Education for the Speech and Hearing Handicapped
  - Section of the Deaf
  - Section of the Hard of Hearing
  - Section of the Functional Speech Handicapped
  - Section of the Organic Speech Handicapped
- Department of Education for the Mentally Retarded
  - Section of the Severely Mentally Retarded
  - Section of the Moderately Mentally Retarded
  - Section of the Mildly Mentally Retarded
- Department of Education for the Physically Handicapped
  - Section of the Physically Handicapped
- Department of Education for the Health Impaired
  - Section of the Health Impaired
- Department of Education for the Emotionally Disturbed
  - Section of the Emotionally Disturbed
- Department of Education for the Multiply Handicapped
  - Section I
  - Section II
  - Section III
- Department of Educational Technology
  - Section of Educational Technology
  - Section of Special Education Information Processing
- Attached Child Guidance Clinic

2. **Special Education Centers** (as of January, 1993)

36 local special education centers
Hokkaido Special Education Center, et al.

3. Teacher Education Institutions (as of 1992)

	Institutions	Students	Year of Training
Blind/ Partially Sighted	3	50	4
Deaf	3	45	4
Mentally Retarded	49	1,020	4
Language	7	170	4
Emotionally Disturbed	2	35	1
Physically Handicapped	3	70	1
Health Impaired	2	50	1
Multiply Handicapped	2	35	1

4. School for English Speaking Children with SEN in Japan

There is a school for English speaking children with special educational needs on the outskirts of Tokyo. This school is a parent-financed, named as 'Tokyo International Learning Community(TILC).' TILC is designed for these children who cannot cope with the educational programs offered by international schools. As of December, 1992, TILC has an enrollment of 18 children ranging in age from 3 to 19 years.

5. Central Government Agency

Department of Special Education
The Ministry of Education, Science and Culture
1-1-1 Kasumigaseki,
Chiyoda-ku, 100
Tokyo JAPAN
Tel. 81-3-3581-4211

National Institute of Special Education
5-1-1, Nobi
Yokosuka, 239
JAPAN
Tel 81-468-48-4121
Fax 81-468-49-5563

II. Link between Education and Health

School health practices in Japan comes under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. Authority for educational administration on a prefectural level rests with prefectural boards of education for implementing various health services and education.

Health education in schools is composed of health instruction and health guidance. An important element to note is that health instruction with its role of forming a scientific perception of health, and guidance with its role of forming the ability to carry out practical applications, function in a coordinated manner (National Institute of Research of Japan (1991).

Direct responsibility for the health practices and education of children rests with schools. In school, the building principal dictates the directions and programs. In this system, a school health committee is formed in each school building. Membership of the school health committee would comprise the principal, school doctor, school dentist, school pharmacist, nurse-teacher and health care adviser.

The school doctor and dentist are usually chosen from whom practice in the neighborhood of the school. They perform health checks and medical/dental investigations as well as treatment. Health education is carried on within the framework of subject-based teaching in Japan. It is normally known as health instruction. At elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary level, the subjects to be taught and number of hours of instruction are determined by the Course of Study issued by the Ministry. The nurse-teacher has partial responsibility on a daily basis for health practice within the school. She is involved in a wide range of health care programs from planning to first aid procedures in school.

School health services are divided into three types of activities:

1) health supervisory activities,
2) health education activities, and
3) school health organization activities.

Health supervisory activities are directly concerned with keeping pupils and staff in good health and free from disease and illness. One important category within the activities consists of the implementation of regular health checks, recording of the results, and actions related to the follow-up guidance to pupils with an abnormal health condition. Health checks are carried out on a once year basis. Another important activity is preventive vaccinations. These vaccinations include vaccination against influenza and German measles.

The Course of Study currently in force states that health instruction at elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools is to be implemented in close association with physical education.

The number of hours of instruction specified at each school level follows:

1) 10 to 11 hours for 5th and 6th grade at elementary
2) 10 hours for 7th and 8th grade at lower secondary
3) 35 hours for 9th grade at lower secondary, and
4) 70 hours for 10th, 11th and 12th grade at upper secondary.

The contents of health instruction address the following three levels and areas:

(1) elementary school level
   1) physical and emotional growth and development,
   2) avoidance of injury,
   3) prevention of illness, and

4) a healthy life styles.

(2) lower secondary school level
1) development of physical and emotional functions and a health mind and emotion,
2) health and the environment,
3) avoidance of bodily harm,
4) prevention of disease,
5) health and life styles.

(3) upper secondary school level
1) health and modern society,
2) health and the environment,
3) lifelong health, and
4) group health.

A basic principle that permeates all the areas is an emphasis of a helical learning process and continuity in instruction. That is, as a grade proceeds, the contents of health instruction get diversified and deepened with each upward turn of the spiral in health instruction.

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III. Current State of Research and Studies on Special Education

Research in education is conducted not only within universities, but also through associated research institutes. There are two national institutes which gear toward to the quality of research activities and improvement of education: National Institute of Special Education and National Institute for Educational Research. They have the similar legal status as universities and are open to visiting researchers. Staff members have faculty ranks, but no teaching responsibilities. The general criteria for the establishment of educational research institutes include the need for large scale research facilities and equipment, the systematic collection of data, and/or large scale research. These institutions also have special responsibilities for international cooperative research programs.

There is no shortage of faculty desire to pursue advanced research, but over the past decade the resources available for the purpose have not increased significantly. When adjusted for inflation the amount routinely allocated to a chair for research has declined substantially. The difference has barely been match by the increase in separately budgeted grants.

The increased attention to research and graduate education is part of a national effort to strengthen Japan's capabilities in science, technology and education in order to maintain economic growth and the quality of life. While there have been major obstacles in securing or using funds from internal and external sources, a new grant funnel is leading to more private support for educational institutes via donations and cooperative research with industry. Among emerging research interests in a professional community of education for the handicapped in Japan, the following domains should be addressed:

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Integration

Numerous studies report the effectiveness of educational integration in the Japanese school system. Among them, Yuasa (1993) reviews the methodology used in this field of research with an emphasis on teacher attitudes toward the integration of disabled children in regular classrooms. He discusses the methodologies from the perspective of the guidance procedure of educational integration used in Japan during the past two decades. He also examines, 1) influence of guidance on the life style and learning environment of mentally retarded children, 2) the integration of special and regular classes in major school activities, and 3) the interaction between disabled and non-disabled children in regular classroom settings. Still issues should be discussed in terms of developmental stages of childhood, the promotion of leadership within the class, factors enhancing the process of educational integrations, and the cooperation of teachers integrating disabled children.

Learning Disabilities

There has been an increasing tendency in Japan to recognize the existence of children with learning disabilities and to categorize them in the educational system. Central and local education authorities have initiated and extensive investigation of appropriate service for this population. One of the most urgent tasks is to establish a definition and criteria for learning disabilities that are agreed on among the parties concerned in Japan (Ohtsuka, 1993).

Transition and Quality of Life

The transition from adolescence into adulthood can be a difficult time for young person with disabilities. Many influences appear to affect this transition, for better or worse, including family background, the quality and impact of the student's lower and upper secondary programs, the nature of quality of transition services, community resources that are available for the young person, and the readiness and motivation exhibited by the young person.

Although the national legislation is obviously quite concerned with transition as an outcome process encompassing a broad array of services and experiences, a coordinated set of activities for a student has not been well investigated and implemented which will promotes movement from school to post-school activities, including 'quality of life.' 'Quality of life' has emerged as an important theme in planning and evaluating transition programs and services. However, the term 'quality of life' is not used explicitly in the legislation. If we are to respond to this rather broader frame for evaluating transition outcomes, we will need to explore, 1) theoretical issues that pertain to the definition and conceptualization of quality of life; and 2) research findings that provide support for quality of life as an outcome domain for evaluating transition services.

Technology

Though cutting edge of advanced technologies has been gradually incorporated in and applied to education during the past decade, methodological issues relating to computer-assisted learning, and underlying the hardware-rich and software-sporadic imbalance, are still being discussed in Japan (Narita, & Takuma, 1989). At a time when conventional S-R paradigm-based curricular programs are being questioned for their lack of reciprocity and learner control, interactive videodisc and computers embodying ideas from Hypertext, Hypermedia, and Logo are drawing attention because of their potential usefulness in the development of sophisticated instructional materials. The implementation of these innovative technological tools has the potential to facilitate the cognitive development of youngsters with disabilities through enabling problem-solving in meaningful on going activities.

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Additional Tables

Table A-1: Enrollment by Establisher Year of 1989

Establisher	Kindergarten	Elementary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary
National	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.2
Local	22.3	98.9	95.9	71.4
Private	77.4	0.6	3.5	28.4

Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (1989).
Education in Japan: A Graphic Presentation. Tokyo. p. 56.

Figure A-1: Enrollment by Establisher Year of 1989

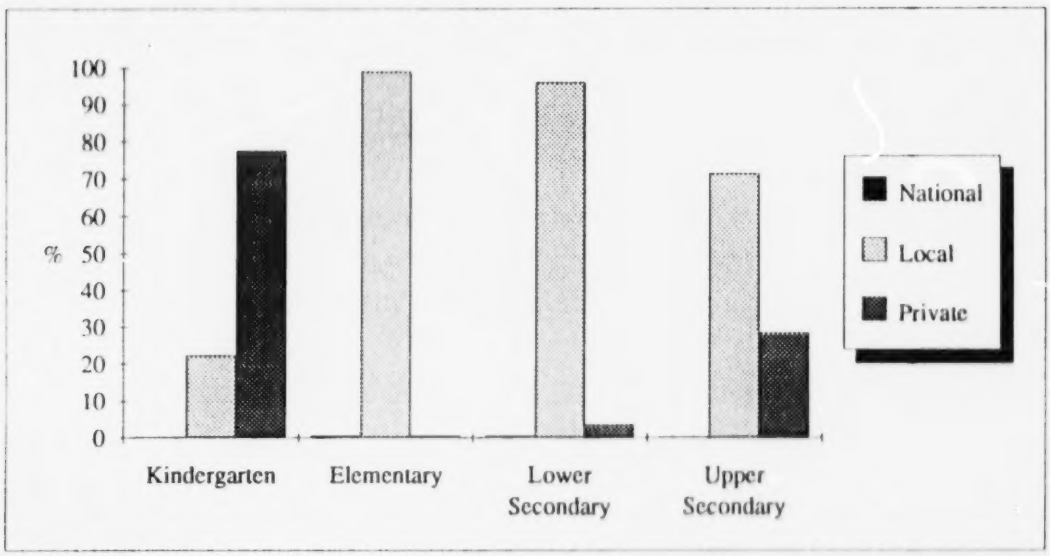


Table A-2: Enrollment in Special Education for Primary & Secondary Age Children

	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992
Mentally Retarded	120,379	117,105	113,338	108,625	106,897	102,671
Physically Handicapped	21,116	20,906	20,649	20,384	20,280	20,158
Health Impaired	9,298	8,754	8,271	7,929	7,209	6,876
Visually Impaired	6,679	6,484	6,221	5,802	5,430	5,106
Deaf/Language	17,141	16,569	16,039	15,771	15,647	15,552
Emotionally Disturbed	12,045	11,701	11,543	11,315	11,171	11,116

Ministury of Education, Science & Culture (1993). Special Education Statistics. Tokyo. pp. 7-29.

Figure A-2: Enrollment in Special Education for Primary & Secondary Age Children

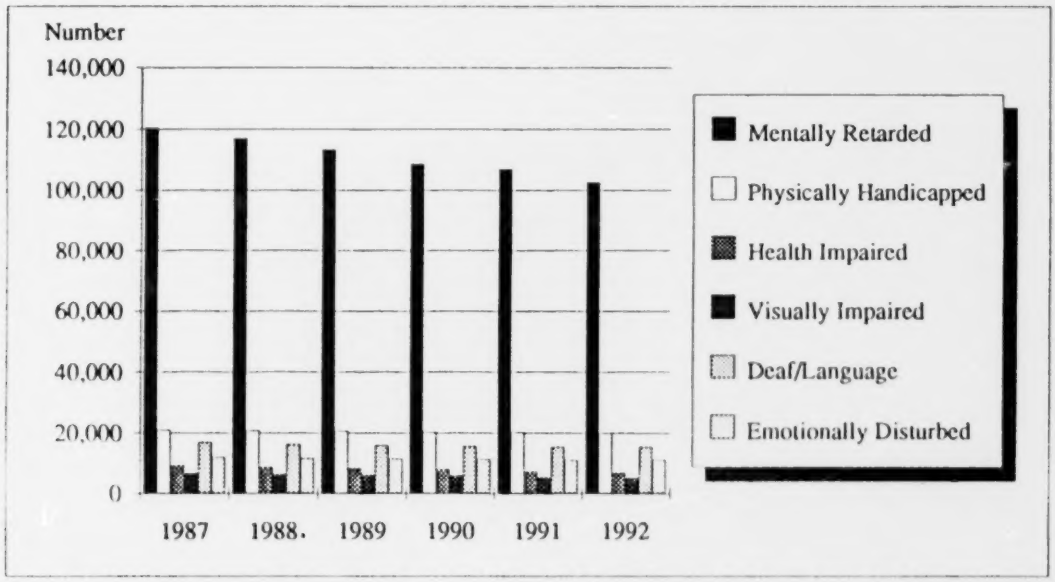


Table A-3: Enrollment Rate by School Level Year of 1988

	Kindergarten	Elementary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary
Male	44.3	99.9	99.9	91.3
Female	44.9	99.9	99.9	94.3

Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (1989).
Education in Japan: A Graphic Presentation. Tokyo. p. 24. (in Japanese)

Figure A-3: Enrollment Rate by School Level Year of 1988

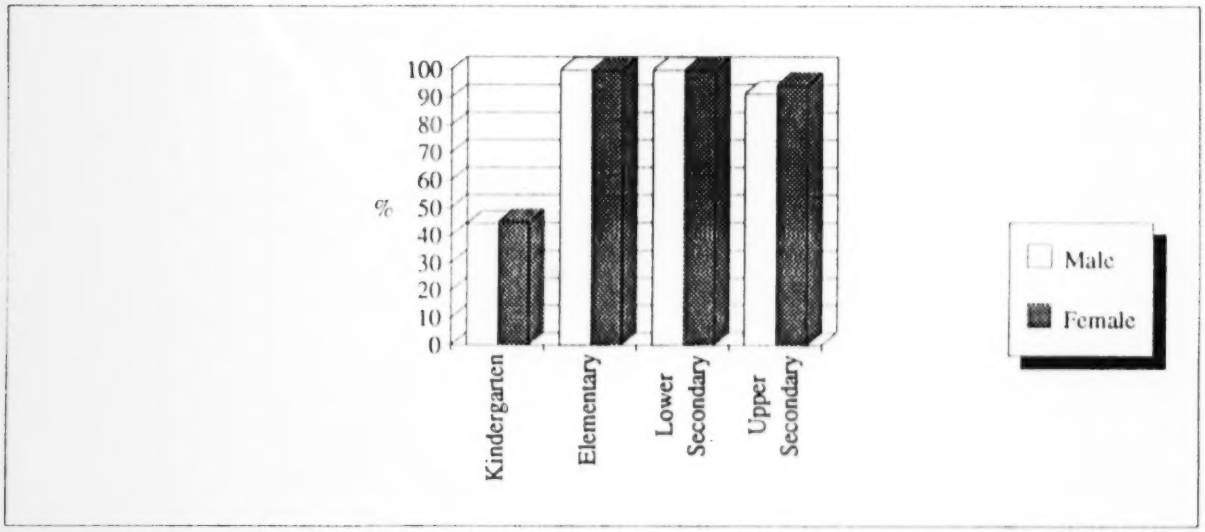


Table A-4: Enrollment of Students by Sex Year of 1988

	Kindergarten	Elementary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary
Male	50.9	51.2	51.2	50.4
Female	49.1	48.8	48.8	49.6

Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (1989).
Educationa inJapan:A Graphic Presentation. Tokyo. p.24. (in Japanese)

Figure A-4: Enrollment of Students by Sex Year of 1988

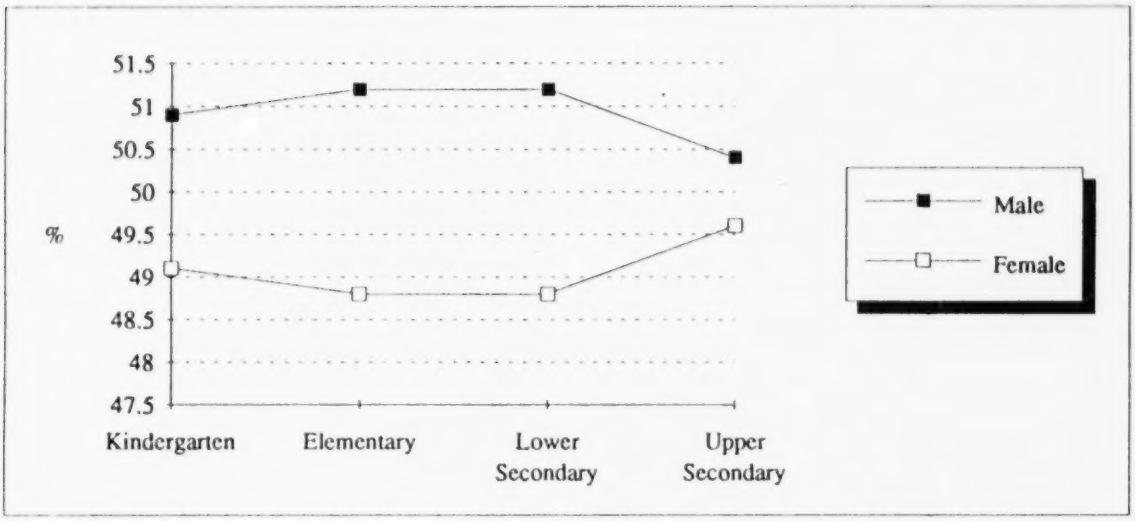


Table A-5: Expenditures in Special Education

Year	1970	1975	1980	1988
Expenditure	352	1,330	2,924	4,105

(in million dollar)

Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (1991). Special Eduation in Japan. Tokyo. p. 36.

Figure A-5: Expenditures in Special Education

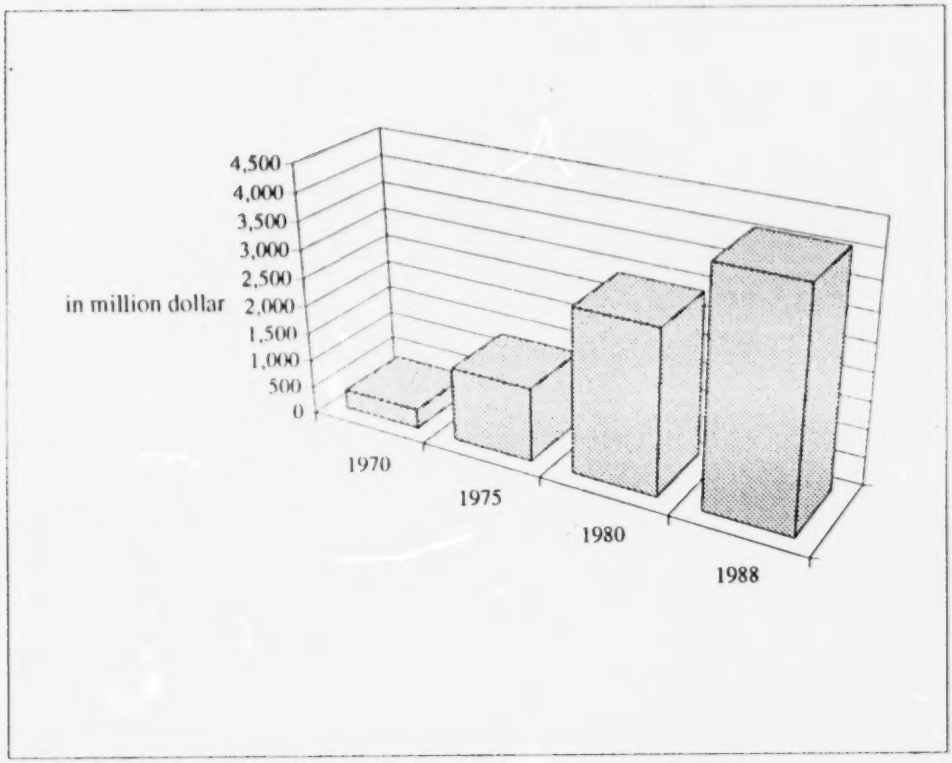
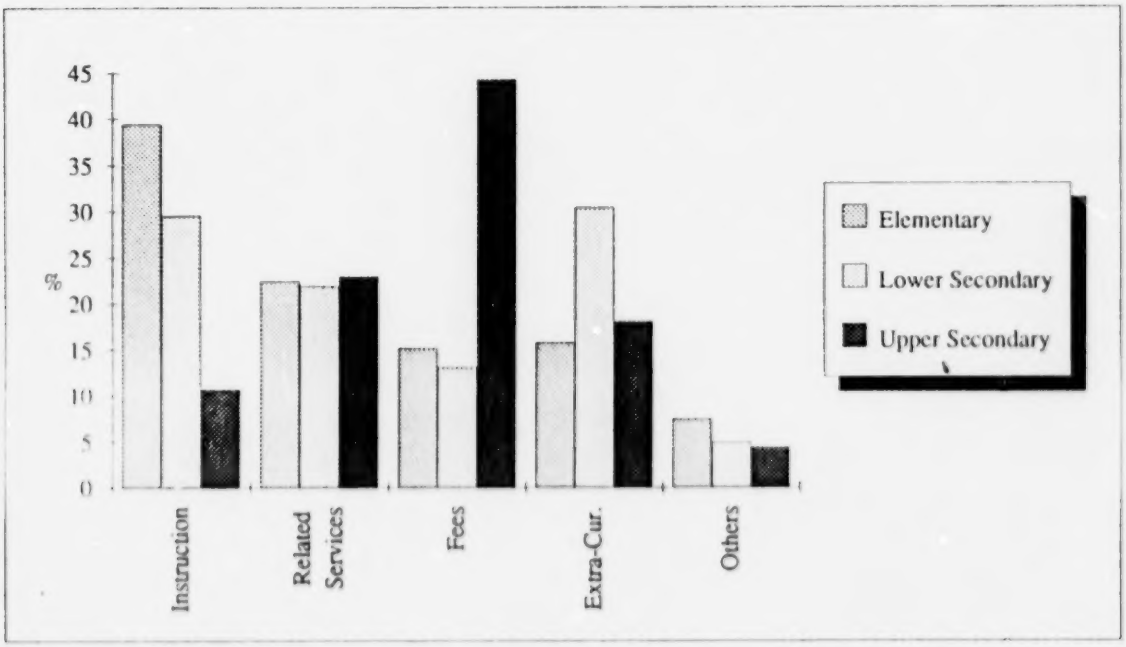


Table A-6: Unit Cost Year of 1986

	Instruction	Related Services	Fees	Extra-Cur.	Others
Elementary	39.4	22.4	15.1	15.7	7.4
Lower Secondary	29.5	21.8	13	30.3	4.9
Upper Secondary	10.6	22.9	44.2	18	4.3

Ministry of Education, Science & Culture (1989). Graphic Presentation. Tokyo. p. 60.

Figure A-6: Unit Cost Year of 1986



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